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EDUCATION

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

DEVOTED TO

The Science, Art, Philosophy, and Literature of Education

FRANK HERBERT PALMER, A. M., EDITOR

VOLUME XLIII

SEPTEMBER, 1922 — JUNE, 1923

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EDUCATION

Devoted to the Science, Art, Philosophy and Literature of Education

VOL. XLIII. SEPTEMBER, 1922 No. 1

Adolescence

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IT is quite obvious that definite knowledge of the high school pupil, physical, mental and social, should come before theories of how we should educate him. Upon such accurate knowledge an effective high school depends. We usually think of a successful school in terms of modern buildings, choice libraries, and college instructors as teachers. These things are all very essential, and we would not lower the standard any, but just the same we must measure success with finer discrimination and consider the ability of holding the pupils through the high school where they may be given proper ideals of life and where habits of better living will be fixed so as to continue to function after they leave school. Such results are acquired, in part, from the studies children take; in part, from the material equipment of the school; but even more from the intelligent adaptation of these to the physical, mental, and social characteristics of the pupil

during the high school period. We propose to treat our subject broadly under two heads:—

I. What is adolescence?
   a. Physiologically.
   b. Psychologically.

II. What is the relation of the school to the adolescent?

Most people understand that a human being, in the progress from birth to death, passes through certain stages of growth and development each characterized by peculiar activities or traits. It is not our purpose here to deal with any of these periods except one. The student, the scientist, the practical man of affairs, the mother and even the poet agree that the period known as the "teens" is the most important because certain social instincts then become more pronounced and begin to shape the individual permanently in both body and mind. As teachers we have been slow to fall into line, and we have made no change, or very little, in the way we have handled the boys and girls in the high school, from that which was used in the grades. But we are waking up. We are indebted to psychology for the great interest we are now taking in our young people; not the psychology of the laboratory scientist so much as the psychology of the school man who takes the experiences of the home, the kindergarten, the lower grades, the high school, the store, the shop, the factory, the street, the alley, the court room, the doctor's office, the reformatory and even the institutions for the care of the unfortunate and interprets them all in terms of human behavior based on heredity and environment and sees man and his fellows in the process of making. The data thus gathered makes it impossible to leave the adolescent out in judging the worth of secondary education.

The child up to this period known as the "teens" is a sensual, materialistic being, (youth is idealistic while adult is realistic). He revels in life with almost the abandon of the animal. He cares for nothing so long as he is fed, happy and looked after. He is attracted by every movement, color and sound. He eats, kicks,

sleeps, runs, gets all sorts of sensations through his senses for no special reason except that they make him "feel good." He revels in imagination and fancy and is naively curious about everything, and by imitation, encourged by some of the fundamental instincts, and by repetition, he forms certain habits and thus adapts himself to his physical environment through gradual but none the less definite changes. Then come physical changes that stand out clearly, develop rapidly and that call for more adjustment and even readjustment in his intellectual, emotional and moral nature, and that demand that he also make over life in terms of himself,—that is, *he* is the touch-stone by which all about him is tested—he is the measure of all things.

As far as this paper is concerned these changes are held to be of prime importance: First, Because they come in the "teens" between 13 and 19, varying with sex, nationality, climate, home conditions, and immediate heredity, at a time when boys and girls are finishing the grammar grades and are entering the high school or else dropping out for good. Secondly, Because the changes, although physical, have a direct resultant in psychic changes. Such is the intimate relation of mind and body that we have the saying, "A sound mind in a sound body" on the one hand, and, on the other hand, a new science whose law is the stigmata of degeneration in which defects of body indicate defective nervous system and hence defective intelligence. Thirdly, Because it is also the time when future greatness is foreshadowed by youthful ideals and future mediocrity and even criminality by retardation or miscarriage of the large hope which is youth's peculiar heritage.

The physiological changes stated briefly are: 1. Organs of reproduction increase in size; 2. In boys the larynx enlarges and the voice changes; 3. The volume of the heart increases; 4. In boys the shoulders broaden, the muscles harden, and the beard begins to grow; 5. In girls the pelvis increases and blood pressure becomes greater; 6. The brain deepens its convolutions and the associate fibers extend and the entire body gains rapidly in size and weight; 7. The special senses become keener.

Girls reach this period some two years earlier. In both boys and girls the maturing of the sex function is, of course, central in all these physical changes, and we can readily understand how the child is put to a severe test to make the transition to physical maturity.

> "Standing with reluctant feet,
> Where the brook and river meet,"

and yet eager to peep into the future, to catch a glimpse of what the years have in store for him, the young person is, in a special sense, in the flood tide of development. Intense vital forces are liberated that acquire a momentum that speaks ill or good for the things put in their way. Range of individual differences increases, so that two young people a good deal alike up to this point begin to show strong differences. The dull child settles down to greater dullness or becomes quite smart, he does not remain the same; while the smart child either gets smarter or else becomes very mediocre.

Up to adolescence the child lives the story of the race,—now he becomes an individual. Some are slow in leaving the racial or childish stage stage, while others push on rapidly to early maturity. Both kinds are found in the same grade in high school and the teacher unconciously adapts herself to the level of the physiologically younger children. They are more docile and receptive and do not have to be reasoned with as does the adolescent who wants to know the reason *why* even to the point of unreasonableness, and who wants to originate things for himself, and who even resents interference, and who, if the school does not afford opportunity to develop such impulses, will find satisfaction in various ways outside of school work, or leave school outright. This new birth brings with it peculiar resistance to fatigue and peculiar edurance and though the adolescent may be subject to numerous sick spells, the rate of mortality is very low in this period. Both teachers and parents are apt to be misled by the exuberance of youth and load the young person with all kinds of work in school and at home, forgetting—or else ignorant—that

the demands of his body upon his vital forces have never been greater than now and must not be dissipated by social and economic activities or by unhygienic ways of living. With this as a solid background of fact we shall now proceed to the psychic changes which spring from the central core or power of sex.

The period of adolescence is a very plastic time in the life of the youth in spite of what we said above that he does not like to be interfered with. Note "he does not like to be *interfered* with," but he does take very kindly to help that is given as from one equal to another. He thinks he is grown up and he must be treated so. Boys and girls need special care and protection lest overstimulation and nervous irritation and breakdown set in. There is just a narrow margin between the very bright and nervous child and insanity. It takes a wise teacher to know when to urge forward and when to counsel to hold back. At this time the young people are suddenly seized with a consciousness of abundant life and they want to express self, and if not directed will do so in a most chaotic and destructive manner. Mothers rarely understand these psychic signs. They look upon the young people as bad and cannot understand how they were good only yesterday, it seems, and so changed today. And teachers are too bound down to traditional methods of handling children to pay much attention to them; hence both parents and teachers are shocked when repulsions toward home and school come to the surface and when truancies, "hookies," acts of downright vandalism and runaways abound. The old life is gone and the new life is not yet well established. The child does not understand himself or his new feelings and powers, although his whole future depends on how his feelings are directed and his powers utilized.

One of the most important educational problems of youth is, therefore, to effect the transition in such a way as to preserve in the life of the adolescent all the finer qualities of childhood experiences and to drop by the way those for which he, as a member of a social group, will have no farther use. The impulse to assert himself positively, as we stated before, is very

strong with the youth. He can tell you just how to manage the home, including the budget, and the younger children; he sees inconsistencies in the school and serious defects in the nation. He is full of wise observations and writes essays, that he knows will revolutionize the world, on "No excellence without great labor;" "There is no such word as fail"; "Over the Alps lies Italy," and he dreams dreams that he believes will solve the riddle of existence. This is all perfectly natural because each one feels for himself that he is different from what he was before and hence he thinks he is is different from every one else and that to him alone have been given the keys of all mysteries. If the teachers and parents do not respond to these high flown sentiments he imagines he is not understood and is apt to retire within himself—his holy of holies—with feelings of contempt for his elders and self pity for self.

These adolescents must not be dealt with harshly, either in language of one father who said, "I'll take the tuck out of John and show him he's nothing but a fool," or that mother who exclaimed, "I'll show Mary that I'm still boss around here and that if she don't like it she can take herself some place else." What is needed is sympathy yet firmness backed by understanding, else these youths will cut loose from home, school, former associates and all social restraint and go to the bad.

This is the time when our young people are hungry for the lives of the great souls of all ages: for Socrates, Christ, Savonarola, Luther, Andreas Hofer, Washington, Livingstone, Lincoln, and they cry out as they read their biographies, "That is just what I hope to be or do." And though the wish may never be realized it has acted as a vicarious atonement, a catharsis, and has brought the youth a step higher in his racial development. Man is the only animal that aspires. Even the humblest work that may be taken up has a need of being transfused and enriched with the enthusiasm of youth. Indeed, the humbler the task, the more need is there of aspiration and hope. Nothing in life is finer than the never-ending enthusiasm and this vision. It will keep the oldest person young. Indeed, it *is* youth and that

too the only fountain of perpetual youth. Many a time this larger vision of life does not have opportunity to develop in normal surroundings. This impulse to be something in the world may easily run into semi, if not actual, criminality, as the long and pitiful story of adolescent faults and crimes shows. The gymnasium and the athletic field of the school will drain off much of this desire to show off and daredeviltry, if not carried to excess,—remembering that the heart is put to extra work because of the rapid physical growth. Debating clubs, oratorical and declamatory contests, glee clubs, will give boys and girls a chance to orate and soar and show off and flap their wings, so to speak.

In St. Louis there was a decrease of 50 per cent in juvenile crime when play-grounds with vaulting poles, horizontal bars were introduced, and when a room was turned over to the young people where they could debate, orate and discuss the affairs of the school, the town, the state, with officers from their own number—in other words, the right of free and peaceable assemblage, for which the Anglo-Saxon has long stood—and where teachers had to have a special invitation from one of the members before they could "butt in," or even come. This was most significant when one boy out of thirty between 12 and 16 years had been arrested each year and one in fifty had been brought before the juvenile court.

The adolescent boy is very sensitive to ridicule. When his voice is changing it hurts him to joke him—that you did not know when he spoke if the voice belonged to the man in the cellar or the child up in the attic. Teachers must not force boys to sing at this time for fear of permanent injury to the vocal organs; and if it is put to the boy in this way, rather than that he *cannot sing*, he will not resent it but retire gracefully into the background in chorus work, knowing that, like the chrysalis, his time will come, bringing with it great things. The growing boy is conscious of himself and awkward as to his arms and legs and wants to put on long trousers and keep on his coat in the presence of the girls. He suddenly realizes that his shoes

are not shined, his hair is not cut in the latest style and that his necktie is not of the right colors and mode. And when he *does* fix up he does not want his appearance commented upon but he does expect his mother, sisters, teacher and girl friends to treat him like a gentleman, and woe to his finer sense of the eternal fitness of things if they only laugh at him and treat him as he was only yesterday, perhaps.

The girl, too, is peculiar at this age. She is given to much giggling, simpering, whispering, weeping and everything is either too awfully lovely or too awfully horrid for any use. She *loves* things that before she only liked or hardly noticed. She wants bright dresses and adorns herself with chains, rings, bracelets, gewgaws and flowers. She is partial to perfumery and silk hose. She becomes almost hysterical over Byron, Shelly, St. Elmo and Mary J. Holmes, and tries to live on pickles, ice-cream and chocolates. She writes *poetry*, and keeps a diary to which she confides all her ideas about the right kind of a man,—the Prince Charming. Biologically viewed she, too, is conscious of her long legs at first (she soon gets used to showing them). At the same time she is more than anxious to expose her arms and neck and wears low-necked dresses even in cold weather. She is fond of discussing her eyes as to color, size and expression, her hair as to abundance and her complexion as to its whiteness and bloom, and if it lacks these desirable qualities she dopes herself freely with rouge, powder and all sorts of lotions and cold creams. Girls, even more than boys, brag of their ancestors and good breeding, even bringing imaginary characters into the family genealogy. Women are proud of the family tree and believe strongly in heredity until some member of the family proves to be bad; even then they say it is the exception that proves the rule. This is only natural, because the female body and soul are better organs of heredity than those of the male. Don't you think the girl needs a wise and sympathetic teacher in her teens, especially if the mother is ignorant, careless and indifferent?

Anger undergoes marked changes in this period and its expression, up to now, similar in both boys and girls, shows marked

sexual differentiation. In boys the fighting instinct becomes more intense and seeks new motives and if properly directed and sublimated becomes a wonderful power for civilization. Fear or anticipatory pain is probably, says Hall, the great educator in both boys and girls during this period. There are many things about sex-life that our young people should know, that fathers and mothers through false modesty or prudery or moral cowardice or ignorance fail to tell them. A wise teacher has it within her power to warn, caution and inform so that the youth does not dishonor his nature but goes through the time of change clean, sane and honorable. The law stands that those who fear aright survive, and that ignorance has no advocate with nature for violated law. This is not too strongly put when we know that Chicago and New York (and other large cities also) have letter brokers who yearly receive thousands of letters from adolescents, in reply to quack advertisements, in which pitiful tales are told of youthful indiscretions brought on by ignorance of self. Truly there is no crime but ignorance. And who is to blame when the youth sins through ignorance? The teacher or parent we say. Yes, but who pays the penalty?

No sentiment undergoes greater increase in both depth and range at this age than do sympathy and pity. These feelings had no chance in the school life where the laws of self-preservation and habit formation hold sway. Driven now by the altruistic sentiment (the social instincts being dominant at this time) the boy wants to champion the cause of the poor and unfortunate and redress the wrongs of the oppressed. His blood boils as he reads about the sweat shops, the child factories, and he glories in the opportunity to go to the front when his country calls. Witness the number of high school boys who enlisted (did not wait for the draft) just a few years ago. At this time in his life the boy enjoys reading about the crusades, the age of chivalry, the liberation of the serfs of Russia, the freeing of the slaves in England and America. The story of Leonidas at the Pass of Thermopylae, Horatius at the bridge, Nolan at Balaklava, Washington at Valley Forge, Lincoln in New Orleans at the

auction block, and Garcia in Cuba, will feed his ideality so that should the occasion demand it he will count it a man's privilege to do the utmost that man may do for his fellow man. It is the time when hero worship leaves its indelible mark on the heart and mind of our youth. The advice of Wendell Phillips that the young man should identify himself with some great but unpopular cause finds a ready response in one who is fortunate enough to live in a locality or time when some vital social issue is agitating the public conscience. The girls want to bring home all the stray cats, crippled birds, homeless dogs, and to mother the babies, nurse the sick, and read to the shut-ins. The school can well take advantage of this sympathy and *fix it*, as it were, by letting the girls take flowers to the hospitals, visit the shut-ins, care for the children of working women on the girls' half holidays, so that the tired and busy mothers may have a chance to get down town, to visit, or go to church, or some club or lodge. Girls could write letters for old people, take reading matter to the poor-farms and county jail, contribute in small ice cream amounts to the support of rest rooms for country women and even write friendly, homey letters of cheer to boys in camps or at the battle front.

Girls in their teens ought to read "Little Men," "Little Women," "Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch," "Bird's Christmas Carol," "Birds and Bees," "Black Beauty," "Beautiful Joe," "Polly Anna," "An Old Fashioned Girl," "The Girl of Limberlost," "Emma Lou." This is the time when the Red Cross appeal, the call from the slums, and the missionary propaganda win such large numbers. This is psychologically right. "Last at the cross and first at the tomb" is women's highest tribute. Regularly organized bodies in which both boys and girls may collect clothing, shoes, ties, ribbons, combs and mirrors to distribute to less fortunate children and the filling of Thanksgiving baskets and Christmas stockings will train them in social service and their eagerness will disconcert and put to shame those adults who measure all help from the standpoint of worth on the part of the beneficiary.

Manhattan School, in the heart of New York, numbering 2,300 pupils, 150 of whom had been sent there as incorrigibles from other schools, and most of whom were adolescents, has an altruistic school organization. The older boys and girls look after the younger ones and call attention to dirty faces and unkempt hair and misbehavior, and also criticize each other according to certain standards that they themselves set up. If criticized or punished by a teacher the culprit becomes a hero or a martyr, (this does not apply to lower grades) but not so under this plan. The group instinct of morality is strong and its punishment is punishment indeed.

The zeal for institution and organization harks back to the tribal relations when each member was vitally conscious of his importance in the council of his tribe and when he did his thinking and acting in terms of social worth. Our thousands of lodges, clubs, societies, fraternities, unions and organizations testify to this abiding social instinct that comes to the front in the teens. Gangs that boys form should not be ignored in this connection. "If men and women are to conduct lodges and clubs wisely, the timely place in which to learn the science and art of parliamentary law as well as of social control," says Ross, "is the high school."

The Brooklyn School, No. 109, was a very dirty school because of bad street paving. A group of high school boys took it upon themselves to see the city "Dads," and they succeeded in getting the streets fixed up although like requests from the school authorities had repeatedly been ignored. Boys and girls in the high school can be interested in setting out trees, flower-beds and vegetable gardens. They can be put in charge of rooms during the absence of the regular teacher. Others can assist the backward pupils in the study periods. It is indeed a skillful teacher who can thus turn the desire of the adolescent for display, to rule, to show off, into educative channels that spell the well-being of the youth and, what is just as important, social service. This hasn't on it the mark of age and respectability usually associated with age, but it solves the problem of teaching morals and incul-

cating ideals to which children are not immune as they are to just talk or "hot air" as the boys would say. School discipline and hence school efficiency reduces itself in the last analysis to the mental attitude of the student. If he suspects that you are trying to put something over on him, whether work or discipline, he will rebel as any red-blooded person would. He will see that you are trying to manage him through some new kind of machinery, or the old machinery fixed up.

At the same age of adolescence there is apt to be quite a struggle—Herculean, we might say—between the love of home and the impulse to go out into the world. That means that the migratory instinct is coming to the front and the boy, especially, is restless at the taunts "tied to your mother's apron strings," and "the teacher can wind you around her little finger." The past of the race calls to him to go out and hunt for new stamping grounds and it takes the combined influence of home and mother, and school and teacher, to withstand the lure of the big, purposeful world. The Germans call this the "Wanderlust;" we call it the roving spirit. But whatever it is it makes soldiers of our boys, and causes some to go as seamen to unknown lands, others to brake on the railroads and still others to tramp over the country, working now here and there, landing in the Klondike in search of gold or in the oil-fields in hopes of becoming millionaires over night. Frequently, reading books of adventure will give the boy vicarious experience, or what we call acting as a catharsis, and he will be able to resist the ancient call and remain in school and be better prepared for the battles of life later on.

In early childhood boys and girls played together. No thought of sex was present in the natural child; but now, the young people pass through a period when they will not even look at each other. Girls think boys are horrid brutes and boys wouldn't be caught alive playing with girls! Then comes a strong evolution in physical consciousness, and the young people begin to "go" with each other. Bourne says that youth expresses itself by "falling in love." Whether it be art, socialism, religion or one of the opposite sex, the sentiment is the same. It is devotion to an

ideal. It is only when misunderstood by some old maid or old bachelor or school teacher who has soured on the world, or when poisoned by a trashy story, a cheap vaudeville, a suggestive movie, or a low-down dance hall, that improper thoughts come to young people. "The sex impulse," says Hall, "ought to be long-circuited, and the young ought not to be allowed to mate too early." The physical suffers and the young people do not get the necessary school training to give them the right attitude that they will need in the complex relations of husband and wife and father and mother, to say nothing of the relations each will have to bear to the state and nation. Miss Addams urges that this exuberance of youth be diffused into many channels such as literary clubs, music clubs, debating societies, welfare activities where the boys and girls have a chance to see each other as *workers* and not as sex creatures. This sublimation of the sex instinct will give the young people a keen appreciation of music, of pictures, of nature, of religion, of philosophy, and create ideals that they before imagined were contained in only *one boy or one girl.* It will make poets, painters, writers out of those who would otherwise become old before their time in rearing large families who, in turn, for lack of proper guidance, would repeat the old story and become hewers of wood and drawers of water merely. It is not an easy nor a short task to thus substitute science, literature, art, music, for the desires of the sensual being; "but is it not," asks Miss Addams, "the sum of the sacred obligation which rests on the teachers of each generation and has not the whole history of civilization been but one long effort to substitute psychic impulses for the driving force of blind appetite or instinct?"

The period of habitual obedience and morality or rather unmorality is rapidly passing and the desire to act from personal freedom and to be responsible to only self is now in order. The adolescent questions those in authority and the established order of things and thus proves that he has a right in the life he is about to live as a responsible creature. Religion makes a very strong appeal at this time to the youth. He feels his imperfection and insufficiency in the multitude of things that crowd upon him to

be done; so he seeks a higher power. So strong and so general is this appeal that we call it an instinct. Hall tells us that 71 per cent of all the women and 64 per cent of all the men who belong to the church joined at this susceptible period. And if for any reason this feeling is aborted it is not likely to manifest itself again unless some great stress or sorrow comes into the life of of the individual. There is a period of doubt that frequently follows this early conversion, that is apt to shipwreck the youth. He finds that he did not change very much when he joined church, he still has temptations and has to fight the world, the flesh and the devil. Here is where the wise teacher or parent comes in. He must build up relations with nature, the world of good books and the social relations with good men and women which are far more important than belief in creed, dogma and any set form of mere worship. The attitude of reverence thus engendered, says a writer, "this attitude of worship, whether directed towards the God of the old-time theology, or toward the spirit unifying the complexity of Nature, or towards a life force in the sweeping progress of evolution, or toward humanity, is the *all-important* thing."

This then is the adolescent boy and girl whom the high school is expected to hold four years and put through a course of social studies, sciences, English, geometry, foreign languages, commercial subjects and all sorts of school activities, besides vocational training. Quite an array of subjects! But what effect do these have upon the pupils? What kind of products does the school turn out? There is the test of any system—the *products turned out.* We wonder if confusion results as the young people are given so many subjects in so short a time! Frederick Mather of Yale says, "A few subjects well taught, like history, literature and science would turn out graduates so desirable in the essentials of manhood and womanhood that banks and railroads would be clamoring for them at the school door."

Another thing; we are thinking of education as being inherent in subjects, whereas it is in ideals formed. Not what you know of facts, dates, knowledge or figures but how to react to the things

and the people of the world about you, is the test of an education. Another failing that ought to be mentioned here is this; we are putting off the time of instilling these ideals,—contrary to nature's demands. We cannot hope to make an educated man of a boy whose passion for books begins at eighteen any more than we can make a fine violinist or pianist of one who comes to the technique of music late in life. The fires of inspiration and aspiration must be kindled early, at the beginning of the adolescent period.

In a study of school mortality Thorndike gives us the following startling figures:—Start 100 pupils in to school and 90 per cent stay until the fourth grade; 81 per cent stay until the fifth grade; 68 per cent stay until the sixth grade; 54 per cent stay until the seventh grade; 40 per cent stay until the eighth grade; 27 per cent stay until the first year in the high school; 17 per cent stay until the second year in high school; 12 per cent stay until the third year in high school; 8 per cent stay until the fourth year in high school. Note that 75 per cent are gone before the high school time, with merely the tools of learning and some habits of behavior formed. What an equipment for life! No ideals, no vision, nothing but material things! Is it any wonder that making a living rather than making life is the all important thing? And is it any wonder that when failing in this, life holds nothing worth striving for?

In addition to the causes of this great and unpardonable elimination of our youth from the school, already noted let us see if there are not still some others. In the first year of high school look at the subjects that stare the youth in the face. Outstare, would be a better word. Algebra, Latin, ancient history, geometry. He sees nothing in any of these that he can use out in life—now that he is fast becoming a man. In many schools he is not even asked what he would like to study—what he would like to become—and so he gets disgusted and refuses to play the game, packs up his belongings and goes out to hunt a "job."

Van Demburg asked one thousand high school pupils if they regarded high school necessary to life. 53 per cent answered

No; 47 per cent answered Yes; and of these one half changed their answer by the act of dropping out at the close of the first year. If these pupils could have been shown that each study is an open door to the world about them; that mathematics functions through its exactness, science is the foundation-stone of all economic and social activities and that even the dead languages link us to past civilizations that are the wonder of the minds of the present,—if this could have been done, the music, literature, the student activities, and the other high school subjects would have had a chance to get a hold on the sensitive heart and mind of the youth and make him more nearly ready to face the struggle for existence. We believe that all school subjects have ethical values that result in truthfulness, honor, cleanliness, health, courage, charity and willingness to serve.

Another cause of high school mortality is poverty. The U. S. Commission of Labor says that 41 per cent of the families of the U. S. are unable, because of low wages, sickness etc., to keep children in school beyond the legal age. In Massachusetts 48 per cent of five thousand children leave school at the high school period because of poverty. In New York eleven thousand families representing thirty thousand children said they could not possibly furnish suitable clothing and proper food to let the children enter the high school. In Chicago a special committee found that five thousand school children are habitually hungry. In many cities this is being somewhat taken care of by letting the children have cheap or free lunches or milk. The adolescent period, with its storm and stress, physical and psychical, cannot be endured when the child is suffering from malnutrition and so he lags behind in his work, gets discouraged and ashamed of himself and so he drops and goes into the shop and factory and thus early takes upon himself industrial responsibility. Widow's pensions, pensions to large families, loan funds for those desiring, but unable, to keep in school, the enlistment of public-spirited men and women, or even state help, would be better and cheaper than the heavy penalty that society pays for its ignorant citizens, its inefficient laborers, and delinquent boys and incorrigible girls.

Another cause why children leave school is poor eye-sight. In the lower grades this was not so noticeable. But in the high school where so much library work is called for this is a severe strain on the vitality of the growing youth, and so he, too, lags behind and soon quits school. Dr. Case reports that of the four thousand inmates of the Elmira Reformatory in one special year four hundred boys said they had dropped out of school because they had poor eyes; at first they loafed about the streets, did odd jobs, then they took to petty stealing and at last landed in the reformatory. The remedy here is very plain. Inspection of eyes and then glasses—at public expense if need be. Still another reason is because of the lack of help at home on the lessons. Up to this time the work has not been hard and father or mother could give some assistance. Now the work his harder. The child does not know his teacher so well either. The departmental work gives him a separate teacher in each subject. She is not particularly interested in the pupils outside of the class recitation. If he has his lesson, well and good. He gets a good grade. If not, also well and good; he gets a poor grade. Failing thus several times he soon gets disgusted with himself—thinks that he is no good—stupid etc. and out *he goes.*

Supervised school study or better yet regular conferences with his teachers would be a great source of encouragement to the boys and girls at this time in life. The six-and-six plan would help remedy some of the above and give the child a chance to feed his nascent instincts on literature, music, scientific experiments, clean athletics and in simple social service. Dr. Judd says in part: "Eight grade reviews are wasteful, children are made to mark time at the threshold of the high school and the first year's work alienates him from higher and better knowledge." Children can do more in the elementary grades than they are now doing; high school should not be for the few; it originated in the middle of the last century and is clumsy and wasteful. The three R's have expanded into sciences, civics, arts and knowledge of human needs and social service. The eight year school is not a law of nature. It came to us from Europe and the child went further than the fourteenth year.

The elementary school really breaks up when nature or the sex function asserts itself. Children, as we have shown in the upper grades require different methods of being taught. The young child looks at the larger world and the Committee of Ten says that the elementary schools must take up the part of this work two years earlier. The seventh grade is to recognize the child's individual needs. It is to give him such a course as is suited to his adolescent experiences. The course will be changed just as the child changes. To delay this change is to jeopardize the whole future life of the youth.

The problem of the secondary education unfolds itself from the child's twelfth year to his eighteenth year. The new order is not an imitation of an out-worn model but is a model of life itself. It will hold children in school. It will equip them for life in accordance with nature's obvious plan. The movement is a social fact, and none should desire it more than the optimistic, live teacher anxious to serve the children given into her keeping and who realizes that the iron must me struck when hot and who cannot bear to reproach in the misfit, incomplete and unsatisfactory lives of the youths about us who cry to heaven for their rights. "We are trying to dance out the beauty of life but you fail to pipe unto us. You are not giving us the chance to realize our ideals. When we ask for bread you give us a stone."

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A New Kind of Rural School

Lloyd Rogers, Detroit, Mich.

I WONDER if we realize the importance of our rural school problem. There are over twelve million boys and girls in the rural schools and they are the best boys and girls in the world. There are none better. They are of the right sort; they are healthy, and vigorous, and they are early trained to serious work and responsibility. They have the ability and a desire to learn. Yet very few of these twelve million will ever get to high school or college. The rural school is their only chance and many of them can go for only a few months each year. As a result only a small percentage of the children of the farm complete the eight grades of schooling. This leaves the child who has to depend upon the rural school greatly handicapped in education. He has a doubtful proficiency in reading and has read but little. He knows the elements of spelling, writing, and numbers, but has small skill in any of them. He knows little of history or literature, less of music, and nothing of art. Of matters relating to the life and activities n the farm, he has heard almost nothing.

I wonder if we are giving the boys from the farm a square deal; for we must look to them in the years to come to feed our people. Our population in this country at the present time is increasing more rapidly than the means for sustaining the increase. At the present rate of increase our population will have doubled or reached two hundred million by 1950, or in 35 years, or within a lifetime. What a serious shortage of food will result unless we awaken to the importance of preparing the boys and the girls of the farm to solve the problem.

Our present age is an age of great achievement. More epoch-making inventions have been produced in this age than in all preceding ages together. Man's genius knows no bounds.

Hardly has the critic said, "Impossible" until the thing has been achieved and all mankind is benefited. Steam and electric railways cover the land; large ocean liners, driven by turbines and equipped with wireless and air-tight compartments plow through the seas, while aeroplanes skim through the air.

No one is benefited more by modern ingenuity than the farmer. In many ways the fruits of modern inventive skill and enterprise have enriched the country and have banished forever the extreme isolation that has made farm life so unattractive. Among these modern blessings in the country home, one of the most important is the telephone. It is a great social asset to the rural home. The voice of the neighbors can be heard in the room though they live miles away. To be sure the wizards of invention have not yet given us the *teleblephone,* by which the faces of distant friends can be made visible; but we do have the telephone and it brings to us the human voice, the best possible substitute for the personal presence. Socially it is a priceless boon to the country home, especially for the women who get out less often than the men. They can lighten the lonely hours by a chat with neighbors over household matters or community doings. Plans for church and grange are also arranged by wire.

Another index to progress is the attention given to good roads. Progressive farmers have discovered that a bad road is a tax upon every ton of produce hauled to market. It lengthens a three-mile distance to ten, and the trip requires three hours instead of one. On the other hand a good paved road pays for itself again and again. The social effects of good roads are almost as clear as the industrial effects. People go oftener to town, they gather more easily at church and social functions, and the mingling together means better acquaintance and more helpful friendship. In short better business, better social life, better neighborhoods, follow the trail of better roads.

Another factor that has made for rural progress is the free delivery of mail. The day of the farmer who went for his mail once every week, the same day he got shaved and sold his butter, is gone forever. To-day about twenty million of our rural

neighbors receive their mail at their own farms, and this great change has come in about fifteen years. This rural army of the civil service is almost as large as the whole military force of the country before the beginning of the present war. It is rapidly driving from our homes, ignorance, superstition and predjudice. Daily papers and farm journals are bringing the stimulus to renewed action and enlarged opportunities. The great interests of the outside world are now intelligently discussed by the farmer and his boys as they go about their work, and this makes life happier and better.

The automobile is coming to be a farm necessity. The proportion of autos to farms in our progressive communities, is surprising. People of the city have been known to mortgage their homes to buy an automobile; the thrifty farmer has been known to do the same, but with a far better reason. The automobile is doing more than anything else to make life in the country attractive. It annihilates distance; it breaks down the isolation of the country, as it is possible to get to town for business and for pleasure without taking a whole day for it. As a means for communication it outstrips all but the telephone. It brings farm life right up to the minute of progressiveness, and the time is not far distant when every farmer who can afford the ordinary farm machinery will see the necessity of affording an automobile also.

The invention of improved farm machinery is relieving the farm of much of the drudgery of an earlier day. It is possible to do the work of the farm now with fewer men. The sowing of small grains is accomplished nowadays by machine methods in from one fifth to one fourth of the time formerly required for hand sowing. One man with a modern harvester can do the work of eight men using the old methods, while the modern threshing machine has displaced from fifteen to twenty farm laborers. The first steel plow was made in 1837 from an old saw blade. The first mowing machine came into use at about the same time. A little later the reaper was introduced and the steam thresher came into use about the time of the Civil War.

Then came the corn-planter and the two-horse cultivator. The invention of the twine-binder made possible the raising of greater crops of wheat, for, as the farmer well knows, the harvesting of the grain crops is the crucial point. The farmer has to ask himself, not, "How much grain can I grow? but, "How much can I harvest with such help as I can get?" Then the steam threshing-machines began to take the place of horse-power machines. And yet in my day I have helped thresh with the old-fashioned two horse tread-mill and the four-horse round-power, and no doubt a few of these horse-power machines are still in use in isolated sections of the country. I happen to know of a farmer who last year jacked up the rear end of his Ford, attached a belt to one of the rear wheels and did his threshing in that way. That shows the adaptability of the automobile and the ingenuity of the American farmer.

One of the most wonderful stories of human ingenuity is the development of the plow from the historic crooked stick that merely tickled the surface of the earth (and is still used in many countries) to the 100-horsepower gang-plow in use on the western prairies. This monster of titanic power plows and also does the harrowing and sowing at the same time, of over one hundred acres a day, or the work of forty or fifty teams and men. Of course this gigantic plow will never help us elsewhere, but the gasoline or kerosene farm-tractor will. A number of farms are using these tractors with success. With them from five to seven acres can be plowed in a working day, thus taking the place of four teams. The cost ranging from $1,000. to $2,000. is pretty heavy for one farmer but could be easily bought by several farms in partnership. For the farmer the farm-tractor is the biggest invention of the present day.

Gradually the drudgery of hard labor has been relieved by water-power, horse-power, wind-power and the modern gasoline and electricity. It has been estimated that the use of agricultural machinery saved in human labor in this country alone in 1910 about one billion dollars. No wonder American farmers are spending over a hundred millions a year for their imple-

ments and because of this fact they have outstripped the farmers of the world, not only in the vast amount of production, but also in the increased comforts and satisfaction of farm life.

Now while we have been making these wonderful advancements in the development of farm machinery, while the many new inventions and discoveries are adding to the usefulness and comfort of the farm and the farm home, what advancement has the rural school made? Practically none. Go back to the rural school you attended twenty-five years ago, compare today's school with it and you will find it is just the same kind of school. Probably the building has been painted, more probably it has not. You'll find very little progress. Generally you'll find an old, dilapidated building; many times it is poorer than the houses and barns in the district in which it is located. The grounds are poorly kept, the outhouses are a disgrace, practically no teaching equipment, and the teacher struggling along on a salary too small to properly keep body and soul together. I remember the first automobile I drove. It was a two-cylinder affair and I understand there were one-cylinder ones at first. Now we are travelling at eight and twelve-cylinder speed, but what about our school? Too often they are moving along at the one and two-cylinder speed. Why farmers will spend money freely improving their farms, buying the latest improved machinery, building new and better buildings, purchasing the best stock possible and yet are not concerned whether their children have a decent place to go to school or not, is more than I can understand. A farmer will pay hundreds of dollars for a choice brood animal, and yet this same farmer will kick like a steer if he has to pay five or ten dollars tax to give his boy or girl a chance to get started in life.

The trouble is that our rural communities have not fully awakened to the seriousness of our rural problem. They have not noticed that the rural sections are being depopulated, people are leaving, farms are abandoned. The rural church and the rural school have become smaller, have decreased in efficiency, and many have closed entirely. Many a farmer is heard to say,

"I had but a common school education and what was good enough for me is good enough for my son." This may be honestly expressed, but it is not true. Competition is much sharper in this country, with its one hundred millions of people, than when there were but fifty millions. Yet some one will justify the present conditions with the statement, "It has always been so; why change it; we got along all right. It was good enough for our parents and it has been good enough for us, why isn't it good enough for our children?" And yet the people who say this would not think of doing as their fathers have done. The way their fathers had to struggle to get along is not good enough for them yet they deprive their children of a chance to fit themselves to take a satisfactory place in life.

It is plainly evident that rural communities have not realized the seriousness of the situation, and yet we need but look about us to see the proof. All about us the brightest boys and the most ambitious girls have been swept off the farm. They have been attracted to the city. Doubtless the city needs many of them; but it does not need all of them, for many of them have been unkindly dealt with. One out of every ten has succeeded, while the other nine have plodded along, eking out an existence and wishing to goodness they were back in the country.

Now we know these conditions exist, and we know this problem must be solved. The boys and the girls of the farm must be kept on the farm,—that is most of them. Unquestionably many of them must and should go to the city. However, those should remain who are best fitted for country life. I am not talking about the "back to the soil" movement, where an untrained city man buys a farm and proceeds to make a failure of it, meanwhile furnishing amusement for the farmers themselves. You know it used to be that if a man failed in anything else he could go to farming and get away with it. This is no longer possible, for farm work, if well done, is highly technical, and the farmer who is highly successful must be well trained. I say I am not talking about getting the city people out on to the farm, but I am talking about the real "Country Life Movement," and that

is training the boys and the girls of the farm so they will stay on the farm.

Why don't the boys and the girls stay on the farm? Many times it is because they have found the work monotonous. The hours are long, and their fathers and employers unconcerned or uninterested in their welfare. Many of them have had experience with the old-fashioned methods in farming and therefore think farming doesn't pay. The work is so hard, there are no social advantages, activities and pleasures. They see their mother overworked and growing old before her time, getting along with few comforts and conveniences, a patient, uncomplaining drudge. My heart goes out to the mothers in the farm homes. They are the ones that suffer. Many a farmer's wife has grown prematurely old and has slaved herself to death, leaving her children and her home to a younger successor.

Many ambitious young people leave the farm because they see little future on the farm, no chance for a career. They feel that the farmer never can be famous in the outside world, no chance for political influence or personal power. What power do the farmers have in elections throughout the country? What happens? The politicians come out from the cities into the farming districts every campaign, and get us hayseeds for anything they want. They always have got us. They'll get us again. What do they do. They give us clodhoppers the glad hand, a cheap cigar, and a cheaper smile after election—that's all. I know it, you know it, they know it. I don't blame them so very much. The trouble is we don't ask them to do anything better. How are the farmers represented in Congress? Not at all. Why don't the farmers do something, organize and get some political influence, then the boys would see something worth while on the farms.

The craving for excitement, the good time, the variety of sights, experiences and pleasures, draw many toward the city. But probably the main pull cityward is the "job." Boys and girls will follow what they think is the easiest road to making a a living. They fancy great prizes are awaiting them in the busi-

ness life of the town. At any rate whatever the various reasons may be for their going, many thousands of our best boys and girls have left the farms. They ought to have remained. We need them badly. But they will not remain until these conditions are met. The isolation and drudgery of the farm must be conquered. The business of farming must be made more profitable and scientific farming must be made a genuine profession. The lot of farm mothers and daughters must be made easier and happier. The social and recreative side of rural life must be developed. In short, country life must be made more attractive and the real truth about city life must be spread throughout the country.

The cities spend thousands of dollars each year for advertising. Every attractive feature of city life is advertised. The daily papers directly advertise special business and indirectly through their columns publish the city's greatness. Every article of commerce and trade bears the city stamp. All advertise. The commission merchant who sells the farmers' pigs and cattle, the stores that sell the farmer implements, and all the rest, see to it that the farmer carries in his pocket a memorandum book bearing the firm's name and that he hangs on the walls of his home calendars advertising the business of these various firms. This is business and it is right, but it is not right that the rural communities do not advertise in the same way. Homesteads should be kept so as to be attractive to the eye. Each farm should have a name and this name together with the name of the owner should be prominently displayed. All facts of interest should be made known. Such advertising pays, or corporations representing millions of dollars would not practice it. Why allow our countrysides with all their fertility and wealth and beauty to be unspoken and at the same time permit them to be littered and defaced with signs advertising patent medicines that do not cure, tobacco we do not want, or lots in the city's "new addition." So long as the farmer humbly pursues the policy of "Please what will you give?" and "Please, what do you ask?" he will be a burden to himself and his sons

will be dissatisfied. Co-operation in business and legitimate advertising will make country life more attractive and keep the boys and the girls home.

Now how can this be accomplished? It will have to come through the rural school as a center. Not the traditional rural school of the past, but through a new kind of rural school, a school that is correlated with country life. You know, in all the years that I attended a rural school,—and I attended there eight years,—we never did a bit of work in school which was economically useful. It was all dry stuff, copied from city schools. We never did any real work of the sort that farmers' boys and farmers' girls should do. We copied city schools and the schools we copied were poor schools and we made poor copies of them also. What we need is a new type of rural school, a school that is truly rural, a school that is correlated with rural life, a school that gets education out of the things the farmers and the farmers wives are interested in as a part of their lives—dairying and stock feeding, for example; soil management and corn growing; and farm manual training for boys, sewing, cooking, housekeeping and caring for babies for the girls. We need this kind of rural school,—in which the work of the school should be correlated with the life of the home and the farm,—a school which would be in the highest degree cultural by being consciously useful and plainly practical. This question must be solved if this nation is to stand,—the question of making the farm and the farm life what they should be and well may be.

It is evident, both from the neglect of school property and the small amount of money voted for school support, that the farmer has no special loyalty to the little red schoolhouse. In fact in some communities there is great dissatisfaction with the schools. The Country Life Commission reports: The schools are held responsible for ineffective farming, lack of ideals and the drift to town. This is not because the rural schools are declining, but because they are not advancing, they are not adjusting themselves to the changed conditions of life. The country people have a right to insist that their schools shall fit their boys and

girls for country life. Even if a third of the pupils should ultimately go to the city, it is unjust to the majority that remain, and the community in general, to make the country school a preparation for city life. Instead of this the schools should train for the soil rather than away from the soil. They should open the eyes of the country boys and girls, not for fault finding and discontent, but to see the beauty of the country and the great possibilities of scientific farming. How will our rural schools accomplish this?

The kind of school which will accomplish this is one in which the pupils measure things, and weight things and apply their studies to life on the farm and in the farm home. All good teachers, Froebel, Pestalozzi, Colonel Parker and the rest, had this idea at the bottom of their work, namely, "learn to do by doing," and "connect up the school with life." Take Latin for example. It is studied in our high schools. It no longer connects us with life. It did at one time. Latin and Greek were the only languages in which anything worth much was written. But now science is the marvelous language of the last three centuries. And yet we make a child learn Latin when all these rich treasures lie unused before him. I say it is a crime to neglect chemistry, bacteriology, physics, engineering, and the sciences that pertain to farming, and make a child study something of no use to him. We are supposed to guide ourselves by the course of study made years ago before these sciences were known. As a result, these subjects in these courses of study, do not now meet the needs of our people. The boys and girls must learn to do in school what they expect to do after they leave school. We believe in the doctrine of learning to do by doing, but we are not following it out. Instead we are trying to learn to do by watching others.

Take speaking in public for an example. No amount of studying or watching others will get you anywhere. You must get up before an audience and do it yourself. That is why local institutes, educational meetings, and school entertainments are a mighty good thing. The children should have the promi-

nent place on the program. I have seen parents and teachers mortified over the fact that a child forgot his piece. That should not worry them. The one care that they should have is the effect that failure may have upon the child,—it tried, it faced an audience, and it required courage to do that; it succeeded even though its teeth burned its lips, its throat went dry, and the audience went round and round. What we need is a greater appreciation of what the child needs, put him to doing, keep him doing, for we learn to do by doing.

Now what can be done? Make agriculture an important study. Study farm conditions. Test the cows of the district for butter-fat yield and see which cows are boarding without paying their board. Study the plan of a co-operative creamery and a co-operative laundry. Make study of seeds, methods of testing, insect pests and weeds and the like, different kinds of soil and the importance of the various kinds of feed. We ought to have some land for actual farming. Then we want to work out a building scheme for the school, so the girls will have a place to learn to cook, keep house, take care of babies, sew and learn to be wives and mothers. We ought to have manual training equipment for wood working and metal working, and a blacksmith shop and a wagon shop, in which boys can learn to shoe horses, repair tools, design buildings, and practice the best agricultural engineering. If we can't have this in the school let us have manual training to some extent by sending the boys to the workshops in the districts and have domestic science by sending the girls to the kitchens and the sewing rooms of the farmers who will allow this to be done. We could give school credit for home work.

And while the pupils are doing this kind of work incidentally they will get the common branches too. Take reading: won't the child master the printed page just as well in reading about the cause of the firing of corn by hot weather or the value of birds to the farmer, the same as he now does by reading Casabianca on the burning deck or other selections in our readers. And how can a child be given better command of language than

by writing about things he has found out for himself. Everything they do will run into numbers and pupils who do this kind of work will do more arithmetic than our courses now require. And we need all these things because they are necessary if we are to get the culture out of life we should get. We don't get culture out of any school, we get it out of life or we don't get it at all. We ought to build as freely for our school as we do for our cattle, and horses and hogs. This new kind of rural school will be a profitable investment, it will pay its way and it will do more. It will build up a social life that will make necessary a large assembly room, which will be the social center, because it is the educational center, and the business center of the country side.

Now we ought to have all these things, and more. But we can't expect them all at once nor very soon. They may be a long time coming, but they are coming. They are the goal toward which we must work. At present the district is too small to do all these things. Consolidation, however, will solve the problem. Then it will be possible to have a manual training room, domestic science room, science laboratories and various class rooms. An auditorium where the people could meet often for moving picture shows, lectures and the like. Here could be shown descriptions of foreign lands, industrial operations, wild animals,—in short everything that people should learn about by seeing rather than by reading, would be taught the children by moving pictures accompanied by lectures. In this way it would be possible to open to the boys and the girls the wonders of the universe which are touched by the work on the farm. We could make good and contented farmers of them, able to get the most out of the soil, able to sell what they produced to the best advantage, and at the same time keep up the fertility of the soil. And in like manner we would teach the girls to become good and contented farmers' wives. In short we would make life in the country for the country boy and the country girl worth while. May that time soon come.

How the Superintendent May Improve the Teaching

Superintendent R. C. Clark, Seymour, Conn.

THE actual education of the children in his school system is the most important function of the superintendent. The fact that the direct teaching is done by others does not lessen his responsibility. He is the head of an educational system. It is his business to see that this system educates. My purpose here is to present some ways by which a superintendent in a small system may promote good teaching.

The first step is of course to select the teacher. Usually the superintendent has rather definite ideas of the qualities a teacher should possess. Usually also it is impossible to find a person who embodies all these qualities. Alice Freeman Palmer once wrote the head of a school who asked her to recommend a teacher possessing unusually high qualifications, that at that time there were no six hundred dollar angels at Wellesley. More is now offered but still there are few angels on the market. Many superintendents seek experienced teachers. I think all prefer trained teachers. Yet in one of our richest states about forty per cent of the rural school teachers are untrained and inexperienced. This is not because training and experience are not sought but because they are not available. No, the superintendent cannot always hire the kind of teacher he wants. He can however insist on intelligence and, given this, he can do much to make the teacher effective by training in service.

The new teacher should find in the classroom a copy of the program which her predecessor has used. This will be a guide to her for the first few days and a help in making her new one. My teachers find help in the time table shown in Figure 1. This table is not ideal and has been changed some as a result of con-

ferences of superintendent and teachers. Some rooms are found where this corrected table should be changed to meet the needs of a class. Yet such a table is a real help in solving the question as to what proportion of teaching time should be given to the several subjects.

The next thing the superintendent may do is to supply a rather definite course of study. This should point out for the teacher the aim of the different subjects, the work she may be expected to accomplish, and where necessary, it may suggest methods. Telling teachers what they are to do and seeing that they do it is a task for the superintendent. This can be done in part by the course of study. It needs not and should not tend toward mechanicism and formalism. It should prevent drifting on an uncharted sea.

Having supplied the teacher with a time table and a course of study, the superintendent should supply her with a plan book. In this book he should advise that she work out from day to day the aim, content and method of each lesson. With these definitely in mind at the beginning of a class exercise she will secure results. I have found that where plans are not written they are vague and unsatisfactory if indeed they exist. Printed forms for this purpose can be bought at any supply house. When the plan book was introduced into our school system, some of the more experienced teachers were inclined to consider it unnecessary drudgery. I assured them that, if they did not find it helpful after they had tried it one term, I should not insist that they continue it. They did try it and do find it helpful.

In many places teachers are allowed one day or more a year for school visiting. I believe I am well within the facts when I say that no more conscientious body of people exist than school teachers, but unless definite results are sought school visiting is liable to become social rather than professional. Several teachers, good conscientious girls who formerly taught in our schools, have used their school visiting day this year to call on the teachers who are still here. They came to visit persons, not to

Figure 1.

SEYMOUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

TIME SCHEDULE.

Grade	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	3P *	2P	1P
Opening Exercises	25	25	25	25	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
English	150	150	150	150	100	75	75	75	75	75	75
Arithmetic	225	225	225	200	200	200	200	50	200	200	50
Reading	150	150	150	250	360	360	450	600	350	450	600
History	150	150	150	75	50	10	10	10	10	Language	
Geography	150	150	150	150	125	90	0	0	75	0	0
Spelling	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75
Hygiene	60	60	60	60	60	10	10	10	15	Lang. and O. E.	
Writing	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75
Civics	60	60	60	60	30	10	10	10	Language and O. E.		
Music	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	60	60	60
Drawing	60	60	60	60	40	40	40	40	40	40	40
Mechanical Drawing	60	60	60	60	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Physical Exercises	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Dismissal	25	25	25	25	25	0	0	0	0	0	0
Recess	75	75	75	75	150	150	150	150	75	75	75
Total	**1440**	**1440**	**1440**	**1440**	**1440**	**1245**	**1245**	**1245**	**1125**	**1125**	**1125**

* P indicates part time.

learn about teaching. I am quoting a part of a letter which I sent to my teachers before one of our visiting days.

"To all Grade Teachers,

"In order that we may get the greatest possible good from the visiting day I am making a few suggestions.

"Arrange to begin your observation at nine o'clock, if possible. Arithmetic, in many schools, comes early in the day and that is one of the things I especially wish teachers to observe. Notice especially methods of obtaining accuracy, interpretation of problems, and the type of problem used. * * *

"It is better to devote your time to one or two teachers and find opportunity to talk over the work with them.

"Remember that school visiting day costs the town several hundred dollars and see to it that you get something of profit and bring some contribution to the welfare of the school.

"That we may all gain by the observations of each other we will talk over our visits informally at Thursday's teachers' meeting. Please be prepared to tell what you saw that was worth while."

At the meeting mentioned I was agreeably surprised at the many practical ideas which were presented.

Another plan is to send a teacher to a particular teacher to learn some specific thing. She should be instructed as to what she should learn and the teacher visited should be told why she is being visited. Teachers' meetings are another method of helping the teacher. Here the superintendent will do well to take a little of his own plan book medicine. The teachers' meeting should have a definite aim, content and method. The aim is to help the teacher. This determines the content which deals with the problem of teaching and management which the teacher is meeting every day. The socialized recitation for example is an excellent subject for a teacher's meeting provided that method is or is going to be used in the schools. If not, it should be left alone. Some problems are always with us. Some are found by visits to the classrooms. A device I have used for the

purpose of learning the needs of the teachers is to pass each teacher an envelope on which is written, "What is your most difficult problem? State other problems. Ask any questions you may have. In what direction do you feel that you are doing your best work? Put answer inside this envelope and return it to the office."

As to method, many find that model lessons taught by the superintendent or a teacher are helpful. It seems that they ought to be. I am afraid I have never conducted them well for I have never succeeded with them. I have found that a teacher who is succeeding in a given line will often tell her method in a very practical way. When a teacher is found who has helpful charts or methods not used by the other teachers, she is sure to get an invitation to bring them to the teachers' meeting and explain them. Teachers seem to get help from discussions of the course of study, explanations of classroom methods, and suggestions for the solution of classroom problems by the superintendent.

The superintendent's visit to the classroom ought to be an occasion to which teachers and pupils look forward with pleasant anticipation. It should bring appreciation, inspiration, guidance. Written work should be saved for his inspection. He must praise judiciously and suggest lines for advancement. Weaknesses must be noted and their remedy prescribed. Possibly he tests the class or gives a lesson which the pupils do not know is a model lesson but the teacher does. I use a form of report of my visits which includes date, time entered, time left, the teacher's name, commendation, suggestions. These written reports are good in that they are definite and can be made very clear. The trouble with written criticism is that it may seem to the teacher unsympathetic and result in discouragement. If possible, a good talk should supplement such criticism.

If any superintendent has been kind enough to read to this point, he will think of many things to add to what I have said. Possibly he may want to subtract some. I have tried to show some of the things the superintendent may do to make teaching effective and merely suggest a few ways of doing them.

Introducing Virgil to the Blacksmith

John Hampton Atkinson,
Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa.

MARK TWAIN tells a story of a young man named Wilson, who had acquired a habit of collecting people's thumb-prints on tablets of wax. He had come to town to practice law. But an inadvertent remark had acquired for him, at the hands of the wits, the unfortunate nickname of "Pudd'n-head," which expressed their view that his thought was provincial. For twenty years he had not outlived the sobriquet or its handicap; but he had collected the thumb-prints of all sorts and conditions of men. When a famous criminal case in the local court was about to go by default, Wilson brought in his collection of thumb-prints, which established the guilt of the accused, and thereby established Wilson as a lawyer.

There is something in laying the ground for resource against the day of emergency. But there is something in developing a resource which is useful at every turn of one's experience. There is given to youth the opportunity to accumulate serviceable habits. Wise is he who early acquires habits of action which are certain to help him steadily to a footing and a place in the world. One may train the nervous system to spontaneous movement, for instance in the quest of useful knowledge; he may invest in a habit which brings him dividends of information. The reading habit is security investment which provides sure and good returns, depending of course on the nature of the reading. There is such a thing as reading systematically to stimulate thought and to acquire breadth of understanding. That is the method of the careful investor in mental resource, and represents a will to know life and be in line with it. There is also such a thing as reading for amusement, without thought of men-

tal improvement. This indicates a disposition to accept life with what it brings, without inquiring much into its machinery or its possibilities.

Life is a going concern, which we are seriously involved with. It is a permanent and continuous business, immune from the possibility of liquidation, or from interruption by a strike or a slack season. It takes our enterprise if we are resolved to keep up with it. As in any other concern in which we have a part, we may, in addition to our assigned work, familiarize ourselves with the details of the business, looking towards the larger opportunities; or we may content ourselves with merely attending to our peculiar duties. There is no doubt that we serve both ourselves and the business by inquiring into the geography and the history of it, the purpose and the trend of it, the points upon which its progress hinges, and the issues we propose to join in our relation to it.

With some such orientation we are likely to think twice before we tie ourselves merely to a source of increment. We like to know where we are coming out. We are slow to take the initial step till we are fairly certain where the final step will land us. We shy at merely the sleight-of-hand necessary for extracting money from the public, as offering only the semblance of success, only the habiliments of life without the living, palpitating body which they are supposed to clothe. It becomes a question what to do with the garments. We prefer a line of action which calls us to personal development, enlists our potential humanity, challenges our spiritual prowess. Whatever countenance we give any possible evasion of responsibility for our inward growth, we none the less listen for a command which calls out the manhood that is in us. However reluctant to face the sacrifice involved in the accumulation of mental resource, we yet hope to have laid upon us a struggle necessary to a grip upon ourselves. We want to be conscripts, if not volunteers, in a service which disciplines our judgment in the matter of human values. A means of providing a competence we must have; but there has been no way discovered for making money first, with the idea of

making a man afterwards. "I visited a forge-room of an evening technical school," said the Commissioner of a city board of education, "where a class of young blacksmiths were shaping and welding various models of iron blades. At one of the anvils was a well-built youth who was so absorbed in his work that I picked up a book he had partly hidden under his cap on his tool bench, without attracting his attention. It was Virgil's *Aeneid,* and the marginal notes on the pages showed that his ambition was not limited to the possession of mechanical skill."

Normally one must live in thought as well as in action, as a whole and not as a fragment. One does not spend twenty years in a trade or a business unaccompanied by the mental stimulus which comes from regular communion with the world's best thought, and then at a signal find himself in command of many avenues of commerce with the intellectual life. It is well therefore to lay the ground for a thinking stature larger than any material fortune.

If one is conversant with geography, so that he has the appropriate mental associations for boundaries, places, and peoples, he has a good building site for the reading habit. He has a good foundation in a bird's-eye view of some of the movements and turning-points of history, especially of the issues involved and the outcome. An acquaintance with history, being a concrete knowledge of the world's thought in action, enables one to see something of the relativity, the proportion, and the application of whatever else he may read. It gives him the bearings of a theme or a book, a view of it in its setting and therefore in something like its true value. An acquaintance with the institutions and the highways of the city of London, we are told, is a key to the character of the British, however and whenever it may manifest itself. Likewise a knowledge of the mountain peaks and the lanes of history unlocks the meaning of any human utterance.

The chief events of history are epitomized in the biographies of a few leaders, who may be regarded as, for the most part, the chief thinkers. In pursuing the biographies one escapes the

books of campaigns, of battles, and of military history, which of all reading is the most unprofitable. Without the distractions of irrelevant matter one is at the source of the ideas which have directed affairs and which have had a part in the development of great moral principles. One may economize further by choosing a few countries which, by their strong characteristics, their importance as leading powers, and their influence on civilization, deserve the attention of those in the quest of essentials. In the lives of her outstanding men, one may discover the impelling motives of Greece, for instance during the splendor of Athens, or of Rome from the time of the Punic Wars. He may pursue the trend of thought, from the time of the Crusades, in the Renaissance and in the Reformation. He may follow the conflict of ideals in the struggle of the English against the Stuarts, in the French Revolution, in the nationalization of Germany, and in the American Revolution. He may continue the survey through the crisis of the Reform Bill of 1832, the Civil War, the Franco-Prussian War, and to the collapse of the German Empire.

But one should read with the intent to discover in the dramatic events the thought behind the act, the principle for which the struggle occurred. Thus in the turning-points of history one discovers the events and the people of significance, and traces the currents of thought and the principles of action with which men have been involved. There he may also recognize something of the variation in what seems a perpetual conflict between two contending ideals: the ideal of getting out of life a living and whatever else may be got with it, and the ideal of putting into life something to make it more respectable, substantial, and livable.

With some such survey of the world's thought as expressed in action, one acquires an interest in the world's thought as expressed in literature. The so-called serious books, those by people whose minds are best worth knowing, assume the meaning and the vitality of a kindred soul. Shakespeare, for instance, loses his strangeness and becomes a marvel of insight and understanding. The realm of thought becomes, in a sense, as

one's native air, wholesome and inviting, wherein the best thinkers provide the best stimulus. Companionship with each adds something to one's thinking stature. With each, one views a section or a phase of life. Thackeray in *Vanity Fair* for instance, introduces one to a view of social shams and insincerity; Victor Hugo in *Les Miserables*, to a view of social oppression and its reaction; George Eliot in *Romola* and in *Adam Bede*, to a view of the moral forces at work in the lives of men; and John Galsworthy in *Strife* to a view of the public distress engendered by the contentions of organized groups. Carlyle, in *Past and Present* teaches one to sift the true from the false; Ruskin in *The Seven Lamps of Architecture*, to recognize the substantial qualities of character; Matthew Arnold in *Culture and Anarchy*, to distinguish between machinery and humanity. From Montaigne in his *Essays* one learns to separate the truth from its wrappings of custom, convention, and tradition; and from Henry Drummond in his *Natural Law in the Spiritual World*, to discern that evolution is the supreme word for religion as well as for science. All, in a word, help one to a view of things as they are, to conclusions that are sound, and to judgments that hold in the practical concerns of life.

Likewise, to cultivate the scientists is to measure the quality and the growth as well as the human benefits of sound thinking. It introduces one to the applications of science by which humanity has been deeply affected; which are supported by a few generalizations, comprising the law of universal gravitation, of the indestructibility of matter, of the conservation of energy, and of organic evolution; and which date respectively from Newton, Lavoisier, Joule, and Darwin. Hardly less revolutionary in its contribution to thought are Thomas Young's undulatory theory of light and his discovery of ether. As one cultivates the scientific thinkers he learns to square his thinking, for instance, with Dalton's law of atoms, Clausius and Maxwell's kinetic theory of gases, and the periodic law of Mendeleef and Meyer. He is introduced to Hertz's demonstration of electro-magnetism, to Kelvin's theory of the dissipation of energy, and to other dis-

coveries, each with its serviceable corollaries and applications. One traces the evolution of ideas from Laplace to Lockyer, Count Rumford to Lord Kelvin, Owen to Agassiz, Cuvier to Huxley, Baer to Darwin, Adam Smith to Herbert Spencer. The mood and method of these men are at the foundation of the material comforts and conveniences of contemporary life, and of whatever thinking is characterized by caution, clearness of vision, a passion for facts, and a sense of inter-relations.

But the open sesame to the world of thought, like the entree to the so-called best society, lies not so much in any book as in regular contract with the best thought and conduct, not so much in any prescribed reading as in a habit of communing with the best minds. There is an instance of a young man, George Livermore by name, who as a clerk in a store pursued a plan of systematic reading. Although he never left active business, he never forsook his habit of reading. He became one of the most accomplished historical thinkers of the country, an authority and a leader without a peer in his field. His biography by Charles Deane is a tribute to the reading habit.

In the matter of suggestions for reading there is a surfeit. We are told not to read merely to pass the time, not to read at random, not to read the newspapers over-much, or the magazines, or the current books which are extolled by the press. One may assume the intent of the advice to be that one read with a method and for a purpose, and read only the books that make one think. The implication seems to be that the new is sometimes bad, the old not always obsolete, and a book of established value the best risk. The counsel of Henry Van Dyke is that one read no book which the author has not taken the pains to write in sound, lucid style. His idea is that if an author thought so little of his work as to leave it in the rough it is not likely to be worth the pains of reading.

"When traveling," said an alert business man of Athens, Ohio, "I always stop at the best hotels; they provide good company and the best information." It is well enough to have a mind to brush the sleeve of wit. It enlivens the imagination, at any rate

for a time, if it does not in the course of events help one to serviceable connections. Out of experience with one's own circle one hardly establishes the contact with life which will give him flexibility and resource. In the words of Valentine to Proteus, "Home-keeping youths have ever homely wits." The average man, without vicarious experience, of some source of knowledge larger than his own experience provides, does not touch life adequately at any large number of vital points. He has his own thumb-prints; but it is the thumb-prints he can get from others which enable him to catch up with some of the specious thinking of the world, to assert his personality, and to justify the wisdom that is in him. Local experience is clearly of advantage, and wholly dependable in its own sphere; but it is misleading as a substitute for the standards that hold in judgments of life and the world at large. It is a substitution of a part for the whole. There is promise of power in a disposition to make contact with the best thinkers, before one is confirmed in a habit of measuring life by local standards, and while one has the mobility of mind which will readily support any endeavor to acquire a wider outlook.

The wider outlook here spoken of involves at least a book acquaintance with those who have thought in terms of human welfare. For enlargement of mind one seeks knowledge of men who have been of constructive human service, either in a limited or in a larger way. Mental resource as well as the power of seeing straight is derived in large part from communion with those who have exemplified the best ideals of manhood and womanhood in private or in public life. These are an appropriate study for incitement if one would be governed by the best motives. They help one to align himself with the best thought. But the so-called wider outlook is acquired by the help likewise of at least a book knowledge of some of the human disasters which have come from the work of ignorance, prejudice, and injustice. Great truths in fact are often illuminated in the sorrows which have been precipitated like an avalanche by the pursuit of selfish ends. Devious thinking is sometimes made

straight by a realization that the tragedies of blood which have been enacted in real life, and which encumber our historical records, are but the aberrations of untempered minds. They are at once seen to be the product of minds which, though active, have not been informed by the discipline of study in the lines of thought and action necessary to peace and good will. To the inquiring mind the havoc wrought by irresponsible thinking is no less a guide to sound judgment than are the substantial issues of constructive thinking. There are books that wisely interpret both. Through the study of these books one may in fact develop an outlook or a view of life which approximates vision. By careful reading one may acquire a balanced view of human existence, and therefore the power to interpret life in its larger aspects. He may be brought the more readily to discern the true relationship between man as a subject of growth in wisdom, and the external affairs which engage his energies. He may be the better able to contemplate humanity as a thing to be cultivated and developed and improved, as distinguished from the physical world with which it is involved in its struggle for improvement.

To find the books which are well worth reading is fairly a test of one's standard of values. Each mind in its choice of nourishment is pretty much a law unto itself. What is meat for one is likely to be poison for another. Reading, if it is profitable, develops taste, catholicity of interest, and constantly a new sense of values. It quickens one's perceptions, improves his standards, and ripens his judgment with regard to the books which are worth while and the books which are not. But that is a good book which starts one in pursuit of another book, or adds something new and important to one's life. That is a good book which quickens the pulse, stirs the mind, impels one to pursue a train of thought, or introduces one to the joy of discovering the hidden motives and secret springs of action. That is a good book which links up in vital relationship fragments of truth hitherto without connection in one's mind; which serves as a key to character and makes one a judge of conduct; which creates

a zest for fact or truth uncompromised and makes one impatient with ambiguity; or which lifts the fog of misconception from a great principle, flashes a light on what has seemed mysterious and gives it meaning and significance. That is a good book which helps one to interpret human welfare.

Finally, the foregoing interpretation of reading issues from a country-wide movement which is now under way in behalf of library extension. It has behind it the organized forces, in state and nation, which are responsible for the nurture of the American mind and for the trend of American thought. It is based on the view that the library is an institution for the building of citizenship. It aims to provide a means of self-education for the foreign born who wish to learn more about American ideals, for those whose school attendance has been cut off by the war, for those who are inclined to pursue a reading course, and for those who would welcome a substitute for expensive correspondence courses and study clubs. The library advance is a part of the growing recognition of the importance of libraries within the school as an aid to instruction, and as a means of broadening the interests of young people and helping them to form life purposes. It arises from an acceptance, on the part of educational leaders, of the essential contribution of the library to the intelligence and education of the people and to the stability of the country.

Gambling From a Teacher's Standpoint

John J. Birch, Pd. B.

N educational system, or a teacher that does not have uppermost in mind the moral well-being of the students, fails to comprehend the inclusiveness of real culture. The urgent need of the world in this age, as it has been from all times is for honesty, sobriety, and truth in thought and action. The mission of a teacher is to inculcate in the minds of those under tutilage those high principles and militate against all factors or influences which seek to degrade or undervalue them. Education is man's most valuable asset, and as such, its function is not to store in the memory an accumulation of facts, but primarily to cultivate the powers of intellect, feeling and conduct. In this way it not only renders a man efficient for life in general, but builds up the very foundation of morality. When an educational system disciplines a student to form judgments on all material matters but neglects the moral issues, it becomes pernicious. So long as subjects, not character building, remains the aim, the schools will fall short of their high mission.

Factors Leading to Gambling.

Gambling is one of the most powerful forces battering against the moral standards of the young people. Society has found it necessary to declare it a crime in order to protect itself from the widespread evils which arise therefrom. The number of laws which have been passed by the state legislatures, together with the denunciations of the Christian people, are sufficiently strong proofs that it is one of the most insidious vices.

Wm. T. Jerome, when District Attorney of New York County in addressing the Court, made a vigorous arraignment of its evils in which he said: "When I went into the gambling houses

of this city and found there a principal of a great public school playing faro; when I found the I. O. U's of officers in the U. S. Army for sums they could not afford to lose and support their families,—for it came to my ears that embezzlement and crimes of the character of larceny were committed as a result of losses in gambling,—I became convinced that the gambling houses, or open gambling was a very serious evil." For these reasons so eloquently set forth by District Attorney Jerome, society has placed the ban of the law upon gambling. To sum up in the one statement: Gambling is a fruitful source of crime and misery, and as such is properly prohibited by law.

The heinous character of the vice becmoes most evident when one realizes that 99 per cent of the gamblers first become addicted to the vice when school children. Boys, even in the grades, should be taught that marbles "for keeps," the flipping of pennies, or the tossing of candidate cards at election time are just as truly gambling as the throwing of dice or the turning of the roulette wheel. To this list we may add the bad examples set by parents in their contriving and promoting various lottery schemes to raise money for charitable or benevolent purposes. Many people criticise those who are opposed to petty forms of gambling, believing that too much stress is placed on trivial matters. Punch boards were never patronized as much as they are at present. Children in the grades are investing their nickles and dimes, or rather squandering them, in playing various sorts of gambling devices, which are made especially attractive to children. In many cities there is scarcely a single newsroom or candy store which does not have one or more in use. If these petty, so-called technical, gambling and lottery schemes, including the "put and take" tops, punch, poker and fortune boards, together with the slot machines are suppressed, then the gambling dens of the future will be eliminated to a great extent.

The idea of taking a chance in one or more of the ways mentioned above comes to the boy or girl (for many girls are now developing into gamblers and some are frequently found in gambling establishments) between the ages of eight and fourteen.

In many cases they are encouraged by those older than themselves until the habit becomes so strong that in a few years the individual develops into a professional gambler and becomes a nuisance to the community and a menace to society. A boy or girl often through the example of others conceives erroneous ideas in regard to making money. The wrong impressions grow into ideas, and if allowed to continue, result in the formation of wrong habits. The gambling germ so early inplanted in the plastic period of childhood finds little opposition from the individual self. If allowed to remain it transforms many boys so that they invariably become leeches on business and detrimental to society. These habits form the character of the individual and truly determine his place in the world and its affairs. It is just here that the teacher has a specific task to perform in forming the character and directing the reasoning faculties of the students. From the experiences of every day many examples might be found to illustrate the evils of gambling. The teacher must take advantage of these conditions and lead the young people away from fallacious thinking. A tactful teacher is able to do this very effectually and at the same time not appear to be preaching a moral sermon.

Mr. Truman H. Baldwin a distinguished New York lawyer residing in Nyack wrote a strong protest against gambling to Assemblyman Severn, in which he said: "I can appreciate the annoyance to the young men of the Nyack Fire Department at being prevented from raffling things of considerable value at their fair last summer and thereby failing to make, say $200. It seemed harmless to them, but it has come to be the general conviction, expressed in constitution and statute, that every form of a gamble, from the penny and nickel prizes that used to be in boxes of penny sticks of gum up to the top of the gambling scale, if not orally wrong, is at least dangerous to the well-being of the children, youth and manhood of our state. "Little school children of Nyack have pilfered pennies from their parents, hoping to win the penny or nickel prize; and children of twelve have given short quantity orders to the grocer in order to save

twenty-five cents out of the money given them, to buy a ticket in a raffle and in this twenty-five cent instance one of two children was sent back by the older one to return a package and get a less quantity because the change was three cents short of twenty-five cents! Young clerks in Nyack have been saved from exposure and jail for taking money from the cash drawer by the intervention of the pastor, Sunday School superintendent and Y. M. C. A. secretary,—the trouble always caused by some form of gambling."

If a teacher comes in contact with any such sharp play on the part of the pupils it is time that the matter be taken in hand. If a teacher be deficient in his own moral calibre, or fails to embrace every opportunity to fortify the morals of the children he is an unfit leader or associate for members of his school.

Gambling on College Games.

The high schools and colleges of this country are overrun with the spirit of gambling. It tries to hide behind the skirts of sport; but it is the very antithesis thereof. Young men too often let college loyalty and college disloyalty become sadly mixed in reference to athletics. It is their belief that the home team must be backed, not only with courage but with cash. The college student who has placed wagers on the athletic games is going to find it more natural to bet on the elections, run the horses, easier to bet on dice and cards, or on the result of any uncertain thing of every day life. If cheating is the height of national athletic dishonor what name shall be given to the gambling on its outcome? Someone takes something from another without giving value received, which is nothing more than stealing. Certainly this is no more a virtue than cheating. To make a strong team, one which will invariably win, involves too often the playing of "ringers" unless detected, or more often still, the playing of men who are not *bona fide* students or those who do not maintain the scholastic standards required by the college. When a good player is low in his studies, it requires a professor of more than ordinary courage to meet the storm of protest that invariably arises if to such a player a deserved mark be given.

These conditions arise out of the demand for a strong team,—one worth backing with cheers and cash.

Gambling at Church Fairs.

It is surprising that so many people see no evil in the methods used at some church fairs to raise money. How can the pastor of any church or its members justify themselves in violating the laws of their state, and committing a crime in order to raise money by appealing to the gambling spirit of the community? It is nothing less than moral chaos. Gambling is illegal, no matter where it is conducted. If parents sanction gambling schemes for the purpose of raising funds and thereby set wrong examples for their children and for the children of other families of the community, how can they expect to escape the responsibility when some of the young people of the town become addicted to the habit of gambling and thereby become a nuisance and also a menace to the community in which they live? If the parents play "bridge" for prizes and contrive and promote lottery schemes in order to raise money at bazaars, fairs and carnivals, they have no one to blame but themselves if they find their children or their neighbor's children spending their time and money gambling in the rear of some cigar store, billiard room or saloon. It certainly is no worse for a boy to play penny-ante than for their fathers and mothers to play cards for prizes or promote and conduct lottery schemes, raffles and door prizes. It is really worse for the parents, for they know the demoralizing effects of gambling of any kind. Horace Greeley once said, "It is a most unhappy day for any young man when he first suspects that he can get a dollar without squarely earning it."

The Forms of Gambling.

Gambling implements are seldom brought into the school room of public or private schools; for teachers will not allow that. But a teacher's responsibility has a greater range than the class room itself. There is scarcely a school in any city which does not have one or more candy stores in its proximity. These

places should be visited by the teacher or principal, for it is a rare condition to find one which does not have some sort of gambling device for the use of children. Punch boards, fortune boards and slot machines are the favorites. The only reason for their existence is because the teachers never enter those places to see what is going on.

Pitching pennies, election cards, etc., are games which teachers pass by and present no opposition to the group of boys playing them. It is their duty to suppress such games regardless of the school attended by the players. The teachers of to-day are not vital forces in the community as they were fifty years ago because they have shifted their responsibilities. Teachers of the past decades used the rod to impress the intellect and strengthen the morals; but today the intellect receives more attention to the neglect of the morals. The "put and take" tops are just making their entrance into the schools. Many stores everywhere are selling these little gambling devices. Some people think of them as merely an innocent and harmless sport, as they are used in many homes as well as in social circles and society gatherings. But they are also used as gambling devices by the boys on the streets, and are causing many thousand boys and girls to contract the gambling fever and thereby acquire the habit and become habitues of gambling dens.

We are walking on thin ice. Under us is a turbulent stream of moral corruption, eager to catch us up and carry us on in its current. Christian people must exercise their power of protest if this country is to have a young manhood free from the gambling vice; and foremost in the march, leaders thereof, must be the school teachers.

English as Such

L. R. Jeffrey, New London, Conn.

SOMEONE in connection with Americanization work has said "The English language is the toughest nut under the sun." We agree with him. It it maddening. Witness the lad who tries to keep "tied" and "tide" in their places, and "tight." As a colloquialism, witness the dismay of the lad when he hears, "That man is tight," when the same boy, in school, has been taught that "tight" means close, compact, and fast; and in the same breath, he tries to puzzle out how anybody who is "tight" can be fast, when a horse runs fast, is tied fast, and a bad woman is fast. I say all of this is maddening.

I visited a seventh grade room where one half of the children are foreign born, and to my consternation, the teacher who was having a lesson in composition, with all the bravado in the world announced: "We will now write a paragraph on 'Carlyle's influence on English literature'." I feel sure that those tortured and bewildered infants could not give the meaning of this sentence: "Alice came back from the store with liniment for her cat's back and she found the cat in the back-yard, where it had taken a back seat to avoid backing back."

This may be a radical view but if I had my way and say, I would cut out every particle of technical grammar below high school. I would have practical work in the parctical, every-day, usuable English. I would drill on "He did it," "I began it," "I am he" and "It is she" and like idioms, and for composition work, I would have the simplest subjects and they would be concerned with every-day life. Such phrases as "It is hern," "He done it" and "Whered jew git it?" I'd drill and drill and drill out and out and then I'd drill some more. There are so many methods which are usable, valuable and beneficial and then witness, "What was Carlyle's influence on English literature?"

Let children come to the front of the room and give four-minute speeches, the class noting the mistakes in English. Drill and drill on those noticed. But do not give out the subject for the four-minuter,—if you do, you will get a stilted word of book talk, and unnatural effort and an unpleasant effect. Let the four-minuter choose his own subject. One good plan tried was the plan of giving each child a certain store window in the business section to describe. This could be described in a two-minute speech, and then written about and then talked over. One might develop considerable English here. Stories, simple and timely, are helpful. If a story is accepted by a juvenile paper and read to the class, the effect is electric. This may be tried with telling effect. There are numerous juvenile papers which are glad to obtain stories about children written by children. And then one of the most helpful things is the quotation drill. The beauties of literature are displayed and many and wonderful they are. Quotations, rare and familiar, quotations, well known and less known, are not only helpful but influential in the life of the boy and girl. Stories of pictures are of course stimulating. There is the detailed account of the picture, the imaginative story concerning the picture, the story of the artist's life, and the story of the material used in working. If the teacher can place in the hand of each pupil, a copy of some notable work of art, this exercise is productive of wonderful richness.

The making of the school paper is a remarkable incentive. Some circumstances make this accomplishment almost prohibitive but if, by any possibility, the paper can materialize, it is wonderfully productive of results. Sometimes just a typewritten package of literary achievments, some of them illustrated and some of them criticized, is a great influence toward the desirable goal.

Of course, oral reading and silent reading must not be undervalued. Both are valueless, however, unless a dictionary training goes hand in hand. Any exercise increasing dictionary work is invaluable. The one-sentence recitation around the class, the three-sentence game, the story theme with active illustration—all

of these have their place. The writing of a single paragraph on one single phrase of a story, the writing of a paragraph on one certain phase of the story, the study of capitalization and the rules of punctuation—these too have their place. The parts of speech should be readily recognized but so far as future perfects and subjunctive moods and adverbial clauses, and what not phrases are concerned, it is our humble belief that high school is time enough for them. One exercise tried recently was a description of a life study. A little girl was picked from a lower room and was placed on display before an eighth grade class. Some of the descriptions written were remarkable for their detail. Any object, either ornate or inanimate could be used similarly.

All kinds of special days, all kinds of civic celebrations, all kinds of local events and all local interests may be splendidly utilized. In fact, the display is endless. Of course, any writing is useless if a long string of words is written on any one subject and that is the end. Such an exercise would be a waste of time. It is in the criticism that the value lays. One paper, will if properly handled, create for a class a fund of corrective knowledge Have a list of the mistakes made, create an interest in the descriptive qualities, have an exercise on usable synonyms and different words applicable to the sense and then, last of all, improve the general building process of the work so that the class may see the results desired. Use freely a dictionary and discuss the use of words required. The memorizing of choice poems and prose selections must not be overlooked. The acting of little plays must also be commended. If it is possible to have the plays written by a class member, so much the better.

Very recently, I saw an exercise which interested me exceedingly. One boy, in a large class was quite an artist—such a boy is frequently obtainable. This little artist stood before the class, and slowly, and just little by little, he drew a dog pulling a wagon. As he slowly drew the picture, the class described what he did. The interest was wonderfully concentrated and enthusiasm ran high. Of course, the structural side of all this writing takes hours and hours. It saps grey matter and wounds the nervous

system. Its direction needs a master-hand and the process used must be compelling. A big blackboard demonstration of the improvements to be noted, the results to be obtained, is beneficial. A remarkably valuable method is a blank book filled with notes on why and where certain differences may come. One very reliable aid tried out in a certain school is a giving of credit for bringing in accounts of lectures, sermons, plays and so forth—any public performance which is clean and wholesome. English as such is a subject to ponder over. I sometimes wonder as I gaze on a class room of our foreign children, just how they do as well as they do, anyway. Some of them never hear a word of English spoken at home, some of them are quite dependent on their teacher for the correct use of English. Street English, street idioms, and phrases are familiar, but the boy hardly recognizes correct English when he has been brought up on pure American slang and lingo. One lad came to me recently and his brow was puckered. He said, "Will you please tell me what it means?" and he handed me a letter written by a friend who had gone to the city to seek his fortune. The letter began as follows:

"Dear old Pal:

"Here I am down on old Broadway, attempting to nail a bolt in a joint slinging hash. The chief guy here, the one who hands out the dough," etc., etc.

The little lad was bewildered. He couldn't translate our "real American." Not so long ago I was walking up Fifth Avenue. As I passed a stylishly-dressed and flashily attired young couple, I heard the male say to the female whom he was escorting, "Go to it, Jane. All flesh aint brass. He needs more gasoline." What do you suppose that alluded to? At any rate, the couple seemed to take great interest in each other.

School days and school environments, school affairs and school advantages are not to be compared with those of ten years ago. Every thing in the world at the present time is permeated with the feeling of "touch and go," "get up and get." We rush here, we rush there, we arrive nowhere. We only skim the surface of things, believing that the deeper rooting will come tomorrow.

But after endless and endless tomorrows, the work remains unfinished. There are hundreds of devices, numerous catch-catch affairs and unnumbered plans which could be devised for promulgating this English game. I have failed to mention, and failed purposely, the letter writing side, the descriptive, and the other many lines which may be sought. My one great plea is just this—why learn to diagram, analyze and disfigure a sentence when unable to write the sentence? The majority of our children are leaving school before high school is reached. They can survive in a wicked world if no word is ever spoken regarding parts of speech but they cannot prevent themselves from becoming submerged if they cannot write a readable note or speak a correct sentence. In applying for a job or a meal ticket, they must know our language and the sooner we eliminate from our street fabric the present slangish offenders, the more chaste and pure American life is going to become.

"Thats me all over, Mable." I think Carlyle may safely wait for future years. I know that little Tony Gentilla can well get along if he never heard of Carlyle but he will hear of "Mable" and he will hear the miseries of English distortion, and the best that the American schools may hope to do is to attempt to combat the evil. Yes, Carlyle may well wait. Even college could do without him though we hear with dismay that the best and biggest minds are "hoping for reaction toward classic literature." When the time is ripe and the preparation ready, the reaction will come. It is millions of years hence though and the best which we may hope for in the present generation is to stimulate a love for plain spoken English, a desire to get at words so that the meaning may be understood, a hope that discussion may happily be terminated and a genuine desire formed to leave the forbidden fruits of streety, slangish, and shiftless American lingo permanently alone.

American Notes—Editorial

As this first number of EDUCATION for the school and college year reaches its subscribers, many of them will be contemplating the approaching or immediate resumption of active school work, either administrative or pedagogical. In many instances the work will be among strangers, in an entirely new environment. There is a common human shrinking or nervousness which affects different individuals variantly, under such circumstances. Some greatly enjoy such changes of environment and are stimulated to new mental and spiritual activity. Others shrink nervously from new contacts and are embarrassed and handicapped by their own inescapable self-consciousness. And still others enter into any and every new experience superficially and frivolously, and are not in the least aware of their dangers and their opportunities. "Watch out," dear reader, if you are entering a new field of labor this autumn, and try to discover to which of these classes you belong.

Those before whom a new administrative official or a new class teacher shall appear will be very discerning and frank critics. They will be, for the most part, unsophisticated and unhardened by rough contacts with life. They will be unrestrained by conventionalities, and unused to concealing their impressions and opinions. They will know quite promptly and quite clearly what their reactions are to the new teacher. They will "like" him or her, or the reverse, and will say so to each other without hesitation. Some of them will change their opinions one way or the other, later on. But first impressions, as a rule, are not easy to change. Much therefore depends upon the mood and attitude of the teacher, new or old, during the opening days of the school year. It is well to think of these things and to train one's self in the art of making a good impression. In all social contacts we should strive for such a self-mastery and such an evaluation of the worth and rights of others as shall make our own personality dynamic and magnetic, instead of repellant, to those with whom we are to live and work through the experiences of another year.

For a remarkably full report of the doings of the National Education Association at its annual meeting in Boston in July, we would refer our readers to the issue of "School and Society" of date July 15. As we have no issues of EDUCATION for July and August, it seems rather late for detailed comments on this great meeting. The pro-

gram was a remarkable one, comprehending nearly every prominent timely topic. The Association gave its approval, in a practically unanimous vote, to the Towner-Sterling bill. It set forward the plans for a World Conference of Education, to be held somewhere in America in 1923, under the auspices of the National Education Association. This Conference will be undoubtedly the largest and most important educational gathering ever held in the world's history, and it will do much to promote world-friendship and good-will. The Boston program of the N. E. A. was voluminous. Speakers from New England were noticeably scarce on the platform. Perhaps this was owing to New England courtesy. Certainly New England was glad to hear from the rest of the country and to catch the spirit of the enthusiastic West and the now decidedly wide-awake South, where all forms of educational activity are developing so wonderfully. The profession of pedagogy is rapidly coming into its own, settling its great fundamental principles and demonstrating its right to a place near to, or at the head of, the procession among the learned professions. Its claims upon the ablest men and women of vision and consecration, its attractiveness for those who wish to serve and to influence the world's destiny are unsurpassed by any of the professions; and its financial returns to the workers are steadily improving.

United States Commissioner of Education Tigert, in his address at the meeting of the Association in Boston, gave the following interesting and suggestive facts concerning the activities of his Department in behalf of the Rural Schools of the country during the past year:

"The work of the Rural School Division has been carried on in three ways: first, field work; second, research and investigation; third, the dissemination of information through bulletins, leaflets, circulars and general correspondence. Perhaps the most novel feature of policy in the Rural Division is the plan of directly stimulating progress in rural education by reaching rural superintendents and supervisors with knowledge of the latest and most superior practices and with practical and definite suggestions. Formerly the Bureau undertook to furnish information only through bulletins and publications which were relatively large, and therefore required considerable time for preparation. Such publications require from six months to a year for printing, after they have been prepared. During the past year we have adopted the policy of getting out much material in leaflets, circulars and mimeographed form, which can be quickly prepared and quickly sent out.

We have completed printed leaflets on the following subjects: Con-

solidation and Rural Life; Transportation of Rural Pupils at Public Expense; Modern Equipment for a One-Room School; Consolidation of Schools in Maine and Connecticut. Mimeographed circulars were completed on the following subjects: Rural Teachers' Library; What is a Consolidated School?; Digest of State Laws on Transportation of Pupils; Consolidation of Schools and Transportation of Pupils; Salaries of Teachers in Rural Schools, 1922; Salaries of Superintendents and Supervisors.

The following leaflets are in course of preparation: States Whose Laws Encourage Consolidation by Means of State Aid; Summarization of the Essential Features of State Laws Concerning Transportation of Pupils; How Laws Providing for Distribution of State School Funds Affect Consolidation; The One-Teacher School Building; Beneficial Results from a District-Owned Teacher's Home; A Plan for the Organization of a County System of Agricultural Instruction in Elementary Rural Schools; Objectives in Elementary Rural School Agriculture; Directory of 250 Consolidated Schools; List of States' Publications on Consolidation. * * *

In the field, members of the Rural Division have visited twenty-two different states for the purpose of investigating school conditions, holding and attending conferences on rural education, and addressing educational gatherings. This does not include duplication. In many instances more than one member of the staff visited the same state. Approximately seventy addresses were made; an educational survey of the rural schools of an entire state, and one survey of a county were made by members of the staff. During the year twenty-four sets of slides have been prepared by the Rural Division for free distribution among school officials on the following subjects: 12 sets on School Consolidation in the United States; 6 on Transportation of School Children; 3 sets on Rural Schools and Grounds; and 6 sets on Rural School Activities. Two films of approximately 1,500 feet each have been prepared, one showing Consolidation in the Different States, and one showing Supervision of Rural Schools in the United States."

The United States Government has been invited by the Government of Brazil to participate in the Second American Congress of Economic Expansion and Commercial Instruction, to be held in Rio de Janeiro, October 12 to 20, 1922. The official delegation of the United States may not exceed five members, and the delegation will be entitled to one vote in the deliberations of the Congress.

This Second Congress was provided for by resolution of the First Congress, which was held in Montevideo in 1919. The plans for

the first Congress were laid at the Second Pan-American Scientific Congress, which was held in Washington, D. C., December, 1915 to January, 1916, and carried out under the direction of Dr. Glen Levin Swiggert, specialist in commercial education of the U. S. Bureau of Education.

Institutions in the United States offering instruction in commercial subjects, and other institutions whose aims are related to the objectives of the Congress, may participate in the Congress by making appropriate contributions to its official program.

We commend to educators everywhere the following, which we print substantially as we found it in a reecnt number of the Pennsylvania School Journal:

At the recent annual meeting of the Headmasters' Club at the Adelphi Hotel in Philadelphia, the curse of cigarette smoking by boys and girls, and the harmful effect of the use of tobacco in general, were vigorously denounced. This association embraces the headmasters of the preparatory schools in five states, namely, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, Delaware and Maryland. The object of the club is to safeguard the educational and athletic welfare of the students of the various institutions which it embraces. Dr. Brush, of Tome Institute, made a strong address on the subject of cigarette smoking among the young students. He urged that everything should be done to curb the spreading of this habit among the student bodies of the various schools. He laid emphasis on the fact that it hurts the student in his studies, on the athletic field, and also it is a menace to the moral life of the boy yet in his teens. He said that a policy should be adopted that would put the students on their honor. The evils of the smoking habit cannot be too forcibly set forth. Where rules are laid down against smoking, the student is apt to make it a secret practice, which creates a bad moral influence among the boys. The student who "sneaks" a smoke in secret is cultivating a habit that will injure him in after life, and this practice is what the headmaster should strive to eliminate. He advocated a vigorous policy and said that propaganda and any means possible to show the injurious effects of the habit in the athletic, educational and moral life of the student, should be employed in the crusade against smoking.

Book Reviews

So many books are sent to this department of EDUCATION that it is impossible to review them all. Naturally we feel under obligation to give preference to the books of those publishing houses which more or less frequently use our advertising pages. Outside of the limitations thus set, we shall usually be able and glad to mention by title, authors, and publishers, such books as are sent to us for this purpose. More elaborate notices will necessarily be conditional upon our convenience and the character of the books themselves.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF ARITHMETIC. By E. L. Thorndike. The Macmillan Company.

Readers of a book by this writer expect it to be interesting, and they will not be disappointed in this case. The book is based upon the modern views of the learning process, measurement of abilities, and analysis. In the introduction are listed ten fundamental questions or problems of the psychology of elementary school subjects. For example, "In almost every case a certain desired change of knowledge or skill or power can be attained by any one of several sets of bonds. Which of them is the best?" These problems, as applied to arithmetic, are critically discussed, much in the way of data is presented, and conclusions as far as possible are made. The author frankly admits that there is need of more experimentation and research before some questions can be answered. A few of the topic headings are: The Constitution of Arithmetical Abilities, The Measurement of Arithmetical Abilities, The Psychology of Drill, Reasoning in Arithmetic, etc. Two quotations follow: "It certainly is not the best psychology and not the best educational theory to think that the pupil first masters a principle and then merely applies it,—first does some thinking and then computes by mere routine. On the contrary, the application should help to establish, extend and refine the principle." "Stimulation to real arithmetical thinking is weak when a whole day's problem work requires no choice of methods, or when a review simply repeats without any step of organization or progress." The Psychology of Arithmetic is a valuable contribution to the study of the teaching of arithmetic. Every teacher of the subject would be well repaid by a reading of this book,—yes, by a re-reading, noting, and discussing of the same.—Review by R. R. Goff.

HAPPY HOUR SERIES. By Genevieve Silvester and Edith Marshall Peter. The American Book Company.

A prettily illustrated book of simple verses, each telling an interesting short story. Intended as supplementary material to follow a basal primer. The vocabulary is simple but progressive.

PLAYTIME STORIES. By Agnes Dunlop and Robinson G. Jones. The American Book Company.

It is thought that "a good dramatic story is the best medium through which to convey ideas, and also to approach the difficulties of learning to read. This book is an excellent example of the plan of "opening up to the child the story world, and through his love of stories and his delight in play, to give him the power to read."

THE STORY OF GEORGE WASHINGTON. By Joseph Walker. Barse & Hopkins.

An attractive story of the great American leader. It is a late number in the publishers' series of "Famous Americans for Young Readers."

CONTEMPORARY AMERICAN NOVELISTS, 1900-1920. By Carl Van Doren. The Macmillan Company.

Classifies contemporary novelists as Old Style, Argumentative, Artistic, New Style, naming and discoursing about the products of each. These essays are discriminating and the book will serve as a guide to those who wish to select certain types of literature for more intensive study.

R. S. L., ITS FORTIETH ANNIVERSARY. Houghton, Mifflin Company.

These mystic initials stand for "Riverside Literature Series." It is forty years since this well known and helpful series of English Texts first appeared on the educational horizon. They have been a boon to the schools, and a noon-day sun to the publishers, and a glory to the authors and editors. We wish them a semi-centennial, a centennial, and many further anniversaries.

ORAL EXERCISES IN NUMBER. By Anna L. Rice. The Gregg Publishing Company. Price 76 cents.

An excellent, well-planned manual for making number work interesting as well as useful. Affords abundant practice material. Various ways of using it are given in the "Hints to Teachers" introduction.

EVERYDAY MANNERS FOR AMERICAN BOYS AND GIRLS. By the Faculty of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls. Illustrated by Ethel C. Taylor. The Macmillan Company.

A book that will meet with wide favor among teachers, parents, and children and young folks generally. The latter want to know how to

behave. They feel, at once, the difference between the polite and the boorish, the cultured and the uncultured, on all social occasions. They like to appear well in company. They are willing to be taught. But they hate to ask questions of their elders about such things. This book will tell them. It tells how to behave at home, in school, in public places, in business, anywhere and everywhere. Its date is 1922. It should be among "the best sellers."

PREPARING FOR THE WORLD'S WORK. By Isaac Doughton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

This is another valuable manual for children in the upper elementary grades. It will be very useful in aiding those who are soon going to work in finding the right job, and in "making good" at it.

PRACTICAL PHYSICS. By N. Henry Black, A.M., and Harvey N. Davis, Ph.D. Revised edition. The Macmillan Company.

The practical nature of this book is indicated not only by the title, but as well by the frontispiece, which is a full-page picture of an automobile, with the side-covering of its internal mechanism removed, so as to expose the entire structure of the same. The inscription beneath states that the automobile "illustrates some principles in each of the main divisions of physics." The World War has made necessary the present revision, since it has brought out so many new applications of scientific principles in the domain of human need and activity. The book from the first has emphasized in fact as well as in its title the practical side of physics; and this has made it easily reach the front rank as a modern text book in this subject. In a well arranged text, illustrated abundantly by understandable cuts, it leads the student along paths in which interest and necessity go hand in hand.

EVERYDAY USES OF ENGLISH. By Maurice H. Wesen. T. Y. Crowell Company. Price $2.00 net.

We cannot doubt that this book will be a boon to multitudes, both of the educated and the uneducated. Common sense and detailed instruction is given to meet the demand for the expression in good, simple English of nearly every idea, need, emotion and sentiment of the ordinary man or woman, boy or girl, whatever his or her station, occupation, age, or nationality, so long as he uses the English language. Common faults are pointed out. Suitable models are given. Simplicity and directness are advocated. Words, sentences and paragraphs are discussed, spelling and punctuation problems are considered. Those aspiring to authorship will profit by the chapter on "How

to Prepare a Manuscript," and editors will bless the author and publishers for the advice given in this chapter. The book would make an excellent text for use in evening schools, or in the regular elementary schools of the country.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN PHILOSOPHY SINCE 1800. A Critical Survey. By Arthur Kenyon Rogers. The Macmillan Company. Price $3.50.

The summaries of the teachings of the leading philosophers since the beginning of the nineteenth century are set forth briefly but with a masterly comprehensiveness, and the author's candid evaluation of each is given. His chief aim is to establish the proposition that "the chief business of philosophy is to clarify and to bring into harmony, but also in the end to justify substantially, the fundamental beliefs that are implicated in our normal human interests; and that this reference to the needs of the living, in a wide and generous interpretation, furnishes the touchstone by which alone the sanity of philosophical reasonings and conclusions can be tested." Merely as a review of the views of the leading philosophers of a century the book is interesting and worth while. We are assured, even by a superficial examination, that the book has a mission and will find both readers and classes of students who will follow the author's argument with profit as well as interest.

HUGO MÜNSTERBERG: HIS LIFE AND WORK. By his daughter, Margaret Münsterberg. D. Appleton and Company. Price $3.50.

No fair-minded American will for a moment allow his prejudices arising out of the circumstances of the World War to interfere with his appreciation of the intellectual and educational value of a man like Professor Münsterberg, who carried on a pioneer work in the application of psychology to practical life that was of utmost value to the world. He was the center of a group of great teachers at Harvard University at the outbreak of the War. He had already established a world-wide reputation and was profoundly admired in the highest scholarly and political circles for his contributions to human welfare. That he should have had a leaning toward a cause which was abhorrent to Anglo-Saxons, and should have been misunderstood and shunned, if not deserted, by many who had called him friend, is but natural. Time has softened harsh judgments and enabled many to take new viewpoints. This book, written by a loving and able and scholarly daughter, is a splendid tribute to a really great man, and it will be read with deep interest and equally deep profit by multitudes who, a few years ago, would have been unwilling to open their minds and hearts to the message of these "outstanding intellectual and social movements of his day."

OUR BOYS. By Howard G. Burdge. Published by the State of New York Military Training Commission, Bureau of Vocational Training.

This book is a valuable one for educational administrative officers and teachers. It would be well if the rank and file of the common people could read and digest it. It sheds light on a multitude of practical questions relating to the home, the school, business life, public welfare, etc. There are multitudes of statistics, showing such matters as the kind of families from which pupils came, persistence in school, age of leaving school, reasons for leaving, consequences of leaving, best and least liked studies, night school enrollment, beginning weekly wage, how they got their jobs, etc, etc. A book that should be on every superintendent's desk It would help in answering a thousand and one questions which parents and teachers expect the superintendent of schools to be able to answer

ROUND PEGS IN SQUARE HOLES. By Orison Swett Marden. T. Y. Crowell Company. Price $1.75 net.

An inspirational book, thoroughly interesting to an average boy who is nearing manhood and very helpful to such in their efforts to get started in the work in life that will best suit capacity and taste.

THE DISTICHS OF CATO. A Famous Medieval Textbook. Translated from the Latin, with Introductory Sketch, by Wayland Johnson Chase.

This is one of the University of Wisconsin Studies in the Social Sciences and History. In ordering it ask for No. 7.

MARIA NOVELA AMERICA. Por Jorge Isaacs. Edited, with footnotes in Spanish, exercises, and a complete vocabulary, by Stephen L. Pitcher. The Macmillan Company.

FRENCH COMMERCIAL CORRESPONDENCE. By Louis J. Fish, M.B.A., and Prof. A. D'Avesne, B.Sc. The Macmillan Company, in the Macmillan French Series.

INDUCTIVE FRENCH GRAMMAR. Brief Edition. By William W. Lamb, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company. Very complete and well arranged.

VIENTICINCO EPISODIOS BIBLICOS. By A. Marinoni and J. I. Cheskis. The Macmillan Company, in Macmillan Spanish Series.

MARRAINE DE GUERRE. My Magali Michelet. Macmillan French Series.

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EDUCATION

Devoted to the Science, Art, Philosophy and Literature of Education

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A Philosophy of Personal and Professional Improvement for Teachers and Students of Education

CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, CALIFORNIA, PA.

GENUINE, worth-while philosophy is more a manner of living than a mode of thought or a body of beliefs, and it is especially a way of living the higher life. It establishes and presents to its disciples a simple and flexible formula for personal growth, an expanding and continuously operative plan of self-improvement. It provides ideas and fields of study that dominate and spur, and it sets up an ideal so worthy of attainment that the most earnest efforts are put forth to achieve the exalted aim sought. The true philosopher is interested in the life problem of self-realization and the pursuit of perfection, and he seeks to make the most of himself in order to render the maximum of service to humanity. It is apparent, therefore, that every teacher should be a philosopher to the extent at least of possessing a private and professional creed that applies very specifically to the daily work of the school, and, particularly, to the broad and profound preparation essential to

any degree of success in classroom instruction and school administration. There must be a guiding star of destiny that inspires and directs through all of the vicissitudes of an active career.

Educational philosophy is an organized and unified body of scientific doctrine relating to school practice and teacher progress. It is a declaration of purpose and an outline of policy. It is the design of this paper to discuss certain propositions pertaining to the attitudes and attainments contributive to conspicuous success in the field of teaching. The author's motive is to arouse in those responsible for the training and professionalizing of students of education the conviction that it is their duty to point out to prospective teachers the path that leads to outstanding success. There are numerous students dreaming of positions of prestige and leadership, who, nevertheless, do not recognize their peculiar talent or see clearly their special mission. There are also many teachers in service who have not caught the spirit of the century and have failed to follow apace with those who appreciate the pressing needs and the rising standards of the times. These and others it should be our aim to clear of confusion and to urge to more serious study and training, to present to them a picture of desirable and thorough preparation for the noble but difficult calling of teaching and the absorbing but intricate problems of instruction. It is our solemn obligation as the developers of teachers to offer some such ideal of professional fitness as that outlined below.

1. There are several fundamental concepts that should be deeply implanted in the minds of all students and workers for the world's welfare, and one of the most important of these is the spatial or geographical concept. All lands, races, customs and conditions of life should be common knowledge to conscientious and impartial students, and some familiarity with the current school systems and educational methods in every part of the civilized world should be possessed by all instructors in America. Comparative Education will become a major subject in our Normal Schools and Colleges, for this type of study begets sympathy and promotes the spirit of co-operation, attributes most

invaluable to teachers in cosmopolitan America. This concept of wide-worldness is basic to the large outlook and the clear vision which every Public School teacher should have.

2. The content and phenomena of nature must be familiar facts to those who live in daily contact with children the most precious and hopeful asset in our world. The wise teacher understands and copies nature, for to instruct childhood effectively is to fashion and mold the most plastic and complex organism in the entire natural kingdom. The science of education is built around Biology, Psychology, and Sociology, and a sound knowledge of these fundamental subjects is prerequisite to any specific and technical training for the work of the teacher. There is no real instruction without co-operation with the laws of growth and the rudimental tendencies of child nature.

3. The temporal or time concept is another requirement for all teachers who wish to excel and lead. There can be no reliable basis for judgment and a sense of value without this dependable measure of progress. The backward look enables us to understand and attack more aggressively the educational problems of the present day, and to know fairly intimately the story of civilization and social evolution is to be fortified with information and criteria that will serve us in many emergencies. There is no bit of professional scholarship more serviceable to those who aspire to blaze new trails than a thorough grounding and intelligent application of the facts of the evolution of educational doctrine and school organization. The rise and development of modern school buildings, equipment, standards, curricula and other factors in a school system will always be a phase of our history and an aspect of professional training of great importance.

4. Teachers should be forward-looking in their interpretation of and planning for life. In carrying out their most routine duties the look ahead should govern every minute detail of action. Teachers ought to be familiar with the trend of economic, industrial and cultural progress, and be able to anticipate and prepare for its effect on the school. It is not enough to appreciate the issues of the present merely, for the future rushes inevitably forth

and becomes the present. We must be planning to meet troubles and opportunities before they arrive, for come they surely will with a progressive program being carried on. It is not sufficient to be versed in traditions; it is urgent that we deal in futures. It is inadequate to be informed about the schools of 1822 and 1922 merely; we must be able to prognosticate and discuss the probable status of education in 2022. The points of this philosophy so far covered provide for our very admirable qualities, viz., farsight, insight, retrosight, and foresight.

5. Orientation is an essential element in the equipment of any professional man or woman. One must find one's place in the entire scheme of things and particularly in the specialized line of activity for which one feels uniquely endowed. It is necessary to select and retain an appropriate specialty and to choose a suitable and stimulating environment. "Blessed is he who has found his work." There can be no success worthy of the name without the division of labor that leads to expertness in some favored field and without the contentment and happiness in one's work that conduce to efficiency.

6. The keyword of success in teaching is METHOD. The universe and nature are governed by law and principle. Order and system are to be found in every successful activity, and the more difficult processes in life are particularly in need of the stability and efficiency secured through method in management. The individual mind and social groups, with which we are so much concerned in the work of the school, conform to fundamental laws and are better understood and directed when certain basic rules pertaining to their development are mastered. If education is to become a front rank science and teaching a great art, then method must be our predominating and dynamic ideal. Performing our tasks under the control and guidance of such an ideal will bring to our work unity, consistency and skill.

7. Love of all mankind is to be another silvery star in our flag of faith. Service to humanity and co-operation for the common good are to lead us to fields of earnest endeavor and severe sacrifice. There can be no success worthy of commendation in any life

pursuit that does not involve this Christian motive of altruism and universal sympathy, and especially does the teaching occupation require this very high standard and aim. This noble ideal motivates the closest and most thorough study of childhood, and when freely functioning it makes a generous contribution to their education. The teacher is a giver always of the best that he personally possesses, but the rewards are commensurate with the investment, those who make the greatest expenditure being the ones who receive both the highest material compensation and the deepest spiritual satisfaction.

8. The spirit of play is another article in the creed of the conscientious teacher. There should be a greater identity between work and play in every occupation, and in none ought there be a closer relationship than in teaching. Not in motor activity merely, but in every kind of mental and social exercise the play characteristics should be allowed to enter. The play spirit means a smile ever ready to warm the heart of some child and a gentle word to encourage the frank and full expression of opinion and conviction from the more reticent and timid pupil. Where the atmosphere of the play is found there is also the attitude of the optimist and those wholesome and invigorating conditions so essential to growth. The teacher should be playful in mood as well as dignified in bearing, and a sense of humor is as helpful in building morale as are resoluteness and decision.

9. Not much need be said as to loyalty, for all will recognize in it one of the finest of human qualities. It is peculiarly and inherently ethical, which makes it absolutely essential in the teacher's professional and personal life. Loyalty to the race, to one's community, to the profession, to supervisory superiors, to ideals and self—all press us to devote ourselves ardently to the calling and cause to which we are dedicated.

10. Unalloyed optimism may be a too care-free and self-sufficient philosophy for days like these, but surely there is no justification for a pessimistic outlook on life. We have the solid facts to show that there is a general trend towards a better status of things. The reading of history convinces us that we have been

making considerable progress during the past several centuries, and the most casual review of the data dealing with the history of our schools is absolute proof and incontestable evidence that there has been a steady and strong movement towards better things We are privileged, therefore, to classify ourselves as meliorists. We dare not be thoughtlessly or superficially enthusiastic and confident; neither is the present situation sufficiently grave to compel us to be cynical or fatalistic. Let us be melioristic idealists, militant, constructive and persistent. While others brood and await the doom of destiny, let us of the teaching profession stay with our problems and confront the most difficult issues valiantly. Let us seek satisfactory solutions with the scientific information at our disposal, never yielding a single step, but moving forward continuously by faithful classroom service and zealous laboratory investigation. Meliorism is a sane and conservative attitude and guide for teachers of the twentieth century. Society is producing better institutions, a more serviceable democracy and a higher type of morality. Education is becoming vocationalized, socialized and universalized. No generation has made such progress along there lines as has ours. Let us not be disconsolate, but with each passing school day vitalize the activity of the classroom so as to bring ambition and pluck into the lives of the children.

Many will inquire how this vigorous and inspiriting philosophy can be acquired. The desire alone will not accomplish it. Creeds are not the concoctions of the intellect; neither are they the creations of emotional exaltation. Rigorous personal training and prolonged professional practice are the larger contributing elements in the building of such a faith as that outlined above. Our daily experience in and out of school must be continuously and reflectingly reorganized. In our precious leisure moments we must be everlastingly reconstructing and intelligently rebuilding on a broader and firmer foundation the principles of our science with their correct interpretation and the methods of our art with their best execution. Wide conservation and well controlled experimentation result in irrevocable facts and indisputable faith.

Only those who are alert to possible discoveries and expected developments are rewarded with the occasional surprise of the unexpected. It is the search for truth, inscrutable and unceasing, that leads on to achievement and success.

It is profitable to study painstakingly the lives and accomplishments of the masters that preceded us. They not only inspire and spur us to exceptional effort; they also caution and protect us against the pitfalls of the profession. A frequent review of the high spots of the genetic evolution of the school as a social institution will serve as a warning to avoid certain prevalent dangers and errors. They will help us to be open-minded and free to receive new light and to cultivate fresh convictions. Ours is no profession for the wooden-headed and the opinionated. Plasticity and the capacity for learning through free ideas are high qualifications for growth as a teacher. Those who have ceased to learn will soon be unable to help others learn. The truly aspiring soul will never withdraw his matriculation card from the university of experience. Frequent and profound self-scrutiny is helpful in ascertaining one's faults and correcting one's errors. *Know thyself* appertains to the teacher more than to those not engaged in giving instruction, for it is not hard to acquire unwittingly the weaknesses which follow habitual and careless performance. Always we must escape narrowness and slipshod execution.

The deserving and developing teacher is a tireless reader of general and professional literature. Reading maketh a full man and wise, and with the other injunctions of this outline fulfilled there is no serious danger of slavish dependence on the ideas and methods of others. Ripe and copious scholarship has not its equivalent in any other species of training. There is no substitute for abundant knowledge, and nothing is so productive of self-confidence and independence in thought and action. Generous reading of the best professional books and the current educational magazines is a practice that should be converted into a habit. Young teachers should organize educational journal clubs to give and hear reports on the most scientific and practical school topics.

The teacher of children is the daily target of the challenging questions of keen, critical young minds. The teacher who can answer adequately the majority of these interrogations offhand and direct the inquisitors to the sources for the answers to the remaining questions is the one who is admired and respected, and thus the one with the strongest hold on the public and the one who is promoted most frequently. Varied and rich professional contacts are also a great motivating influence in the education of young instructors. Good use should be made of every opportunity to mingle with the original and forceful leaders in our field. Finally, incalculable profit is to be derived from devout meditation and profound contemplation of the problems confronting the the teacher. No philosophy is complete without some emphasis placed on professional piety. Reverence for the sacred and holy aims of education, which are the production of completely fashioned men and women and the setting up of a perfect social order, is an indispensable attribute in the philosophy of noble-minded and consecrated American Public School teachers.

The Ship

Far down the pathless byways of the sea,
  Beyond the last white line of flashing sand,
A laden ship sweeps homeward silently,
  On its lone journey from some fruitful land,
And there are left twin threads of dancing white
  That follow after where was calm before,
They spread, grow less, catch bits of stray sunlight,
  Ripple and turn and die beside the shore.
Sapphire and burning gems! Then quiet lie
  In mirrored blue, the liquid level plains—
Still far above there curves an endless sky,
  But of the silent ship, no trace remains.

ALICE STANWOOD WILLOUGHBY.

The Changing Methods of Instruction in English

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NO other single study or group of studies has been made the battle ground of so many clashing pedagogical theories as the study of English. This is only what we should expect in view of two obvious facts: first, the universality of English as a study, from infancy to the most advanced stage of scholastic life; and secondly, the abundant opportunity the subject affords for testing a new method by visible and immediate results. In short, the whole history of the art of teaching would be found epitomized in a collection of old and new text-books on English language and literature.

Stated in the broadest generalizations, this epitome would read somewhat thus: The prevailing trend of development in the teaching and learning process as applied to English has been from the linguistic to the literary; from the mechanical to the artistic; from the letter to the spirit. Of course a summary of this sort, on such a subject, is more or less precarious, as most generalizations are; and yet it is obvious that some such course of development may be plainly traced in the changing methods of instruction as observed in the text-books of successive periods.

It must be borne in mind that in spite of this general movement away from the mechanical study of language as a disciplinary study and toward a more vitalized study of literary art, there has been a quiet under-current of sound linguistic investigation, which has accompanied and had a part in shaping the very tendency of which we are speaking. In fact, it is in no small part as a result of the more scholarly and scientific study of the English language as language that the more spiritual conception of the artistry of literature has come to us.

Anyhow, the philologist rejoices with the pedagog that Johnny is getting less parsing and more poetry, less of the castor oil of grammar and more of the candy of living books. And of course Johnny likes the change. He applauds vociferously when Pa pooh-poohs the rules of syntax and when he reads in the popular magazine that Professor So-and-So recommends that the grammars be dumped into the schoolhouse furnace. It is conceivable that Johnny would even go further. Leave the curriculum to Johnny, and watch the man nail the "To Let" sign on the schoolhouse door this afternoon!

As a matter of fact, the question of the ideal relation between the linguistic, or mechanical, and the literary, or spiritual, side of English study is still in the process of being answered, and the thoughtful teacher, as well as the interested parent, must needs follow with patience the pros and cons of the discussion, realizing that its ultimate purpose is to discover just the right proportions of castor oil and candy that Johnny's *needs*, rather than his *tastes*, demand.

For this reason, therefore, the present writer ventures to review briefly and untechnically the net results of the many and lengthy discussions that have occupied scores of local, state, and national bodies of English teachers in recent years.

A starting point for our inquiry may be found in the oft-repeated question, What is the true and ultimate purpose of the technical study of language, particularly of one's native language?

It may serve in clearing the way to answer this question first of all negatively.

In the first place, then, the purpose of technical language study is certainly not to give the child his first use of language. This earliest use he acquires purely by imitation—the mystery, the miracle of speech; the infant—*infans*, unspeaking—catching through ear and eye the magic secret of the race and with beautiful imperfectness developing out of the first halting, lisping efforts into easy and incessant childish prattle. In the presence of this phenomenon your philologist stands not as a schoolmaster, but sits humbly as a pupil. No rule from all his learned books

can help or hurry the child's mastery of the medium where through his infant wants find expression, but the mother's excruciatingly unscholarly and unpedagogical "tootsy-wootsy" dialect defies philology, pedagogy, psychology, and all "ologies" and succeeds where they would utterly fail.

Again, the purpose of technical language study is not to teach the school-boy "to speak and write the English language correctly." That meaningless definition of the purpose of grammar is now fortunately banished from all the better grammars. Were that the purpose of grammar, then grammar has been and is the most colossal failure of our educational history. One might as well try to teach an infant to articulate properly by means of Grimm's Law as to try to teach a pupil the formation of habits of correct speech by means of etymology, syntax, and analysis. The formation of correct or incorrect speech habits is almost as purely a matter of imitation as the acquiring of the earliest power of speech. Save in rare instances there is on the child's part no conscious attention to the correctness or incorrectness of his speech. If he hears accurate and intelligent speech at home, if he is taught to read and enjoy literature of the proper sort, and especially if he is taught and assisted to express his own ideas in the language he knows and understands, he will instinctively form habits of accurate and intelligent speech. If, on the other hand, the language he hears at home is uncouth and slovenly, and if he does not learn the use and enjoyment of good reading, no amount of the later study of grammar, no matter how thoroughly it may be taught or how diligently it may be pursued, will make his speech accurate and intelligent. That there have been some notable exceptions to this rule only serves to emphasize the truth of the general statement. The bane of the elementary-school course until very recently was the waste of the pupil's time and energy on grammar and the want of drill in oral and written composition, accompanying the reading of simple classics adapted to the child's powers of appreciation.

The utterly unsound pedagogy of the older method will be seen on a moment's reflection. Grammar is a science. A science

is a systematic classification of phenomena observed and an accurate formulation of the principles underlying these phenomena. A person who had never seen plants and flowers could not study botany with interest or profit because he would be trying to classify phenomena and formulate principles entirely outside the range of his experience. A child that has learned the art of language in only a child's way has not yet sufficient phenomena in his field of observation to need classification or formulation, even were his powers of generalization sufficiently developed to make such abstract processes possible. The acquisition of the material of language—vocabulary, idioms, sentence forms, and the like—is the first concern of the elementary pupil. This acquisition is made by reading, by conversation, by oral and written expression. Correction of the crudities and inaccuracies inevitable in a child's speech can best be made in the natural way in which the child learns language, by showing him the correct form and giving him practice in imitating it, without leading him into a self-conscious analysis of the error. It is now thoroughly established that a child may learn to use the language with accuracy, fluency, and a certain degree of artistic grace without knowing an adjective from a noun, or a participle from a perambulator. In other words, the *art* of language, so far as a child is concerned, can be pretty highly cultivated without the aid of the *science* of language.

In the third place, it is not the purpose of language study to afford mental discipline. To be sure, there can be no doubt that the study of language in a truly scientific way does furnish disciplinary exercise of the highest order. The psychology of today has pretty well exploded the theory of a *general* mental discipline, thereby driving the defenders of the old-time "classical" curriculum from a much-cherished outpost and forcing them to defend even the inner walls of their beleaguered stronghold.

Modern psychology does admit, however, that there is such a thing as a formal discipline, in that the development of one set of faculties by a certain type of habitual use facilitates the development of more or less closely related faculties. Thus the

mastery of one branch of mathematics or music or language, for example, gives one greater power to master other branches of mathematics or music or language. This disciplinary value, in the case of language study, is by no means to be belittled. In the face of the popular clamor for discarding all studies that do not have a direct and utilitarian relation to common life, and with full sympathy with the ideal back of this clamor, we can yet afford to stand firm for a considerable amount of linguistic training in both modern and ancient languages, for the sake of the exceptional value they have for those who aspire to the higher and more artistic uses of language.

But it is almost platitudinous to-day to remind ourselves that the schools are concerned primarily with the fitting of the many for more efficient, prosperous, and serviceable living than with fitting the few for a purely intellectual or esthetic career. To accomplish this worthy American aim the school has been forced by popular demand to transform the old-time curriculum, based upon the theory of a general mental discipline and handicapped by a false definition of culture, into a thoroughly modern course of studies related closely to daily life and subordinating mere knowledge to efficiency. That the change is wholesome and desirable no broad-minded person can deny. And it would be entirely inconsistent with this twentieth-century ideal of education to base the justification of technical language study upon the mere claim of mental discipline. The discipline is, and must be, only a highly useful by-product, thrown off in a process that has a greater and more immediate significance elsewhere.

To sum up, then, the negative arguments, linguistic study is obviously not to teach the child to speak. Experience has shown that it does little or nothing to aid in the formation of habits of correct speech. Modern psychology supports the present-day demand that the discipline of language study be frankly subordinated to the practical aims of education for our modern democracy.

Now, taking up the question from the positive side, what *is* the pupose of technical language study?

Let us for a moment seek the aid of analogy.

Why study botany? Certainly not to introduce the plant world to the child in infancy. Certainly not to form in the child the habit of adapting plants to his needs. That habit he will acquire by observation and imitation. He will be able, if intelligently guided, to collect extensive stores of knowledge about plants, their forms, their habits, their uses. Indeed, the average farmer to this good day has acquired his knowledge and his skill in the plant world in this purely untechnical way. Why then study the science of botany?

First, because the systematic observation and the formal classification of plant forms is the only way whereby the maturing mind can adequately comprehend and intelligently investigate the vast complex of the plant world. The child was able to retain in memory, without classifiaction being consciously made, the limited plant forms he came in contact with. But as he grows older the range of plants becomes wider and their significance to him becomes greater; so that he is under the necessity, if he hopes to know them adequately and use them intelligently, of grouping them into orders, branches, families, genera, and species. This is by way of concession to his limited powers of comprehension and memory. By means of this grouping he may have at his command hundreds of individual plants, knowing their names, their structure, and their habits. More important still, he now has a filing system, so to speak, in which all forms yet to be observed may be quickly and accurately listed and from which they may be instantly drawn when needed.

Secondly, the boy studies botany because, as a result of classification thus made, he is enabled to acquire such a familiarity with the structure, functions, interrelations, and values of plants that he can manipulate them and adapt them to his needs and make them minister to his well-being. We are just to-day coming to see how indispensable such knowledge is to the farmer and the housewife and therefore to society in general. Without a scientific knowledge of botany the child may know many rudimentary and external facts about plants and may acquire a certain degree of skill in cultivating them. With the scientific

knowledge, the man is master of the plant kingdom. The difference is the difference between the average farmer and Luther Burbank.

These, then, are the two primary reasons for the study of botany: first, to acquire systematic, comprehensive *knowledge* of plants; and secondly, to secure the *mastery* over them and to subdue them to men's uses. Incidentally there are three highly valuable by-products: first, a widely extended knowledge of hundreds of plant forms that the student's ordinary experience would not bring to his observation; secondly, a high order of mental discipline resulting from the habit of logical co-ordination and sub-ordination of facts and principles observed; and thirdly, a valuable ethical training involved in the habitual search for truth in the sincere, open-minded spirit of the true scientist. This last, by the way, while I have here listed it as a by-product of the teaching process, is perhaps after all the end most earnestly to be sought through that process.

Does not the analogy apply itself at every point? Why the scientific, technical study of the English language?

First, in order to secure a comprehensive view, a clear and logical survey, of the materials and forms of language. As the child passes out of the earlier stages in which imitation and memory have been his guides, the range of language elements becomes too great and complex to be clearly apperceived in the mass. He will become confused and his power of making further acquisitions in the art of speech will become relatively less unless he can systematize his knowledge by scientific grouping and classification. This is what his grammar does for him first of all. Heretofore words have been only words; now they fall into great groups, and become nouns, verbs, adjectives, and the rest. Later the structure, inflections, and interrelations of words are investigated, classified, formulated. Soon all raw materials of speech may be comprehended in one system, with its fascinating divisions and sub-divisions, its analogies and anomalies, its nomenclature and its rules.

This marks an entirely new period in the child's development.

Now for the first time words, as words, have a significance to him. Until now they were only thought-symbols; now they are thought-content; they are entities, and demand his attention apart from their functions as symbols. He is conscious of them; he isolates them, analyzes them, catalogues them. He predicates certain things about them: their classes, inflections, relations, and constructions.

But this minute and logical systematizing process is only a preparatory step to the second great purpose of technical grammar; namely, to develop power and skill in the manipulation of language materials for determinate ends.

Given accurate, intelligent speech in the home; given an atmosphere of good books and a habit of reading early formed; and given intelligent guidance in the untechnical language teaching of the elementary grades; and the child will have developed a suprising ease and range of expression. He will have "picked up" as we say, a good common language. But this command, so-called, is not an absolute command—it certainly is not a mastery. The child may speak habitually without errors in grammar, but it is merely because the models he imitates have been correct. He does not know why they are correct, or even that they *are* correct. He can have no certain and safe criteria to guide him when he must seek new modes of expression for new objects of consciousness. It is here that the study of language from the scientific standpoint becomes of inestimable service. It corroborates the imitation-habits of correct speech, gives rational explanation for facts hitherto accepted merely on faith, and supplies trustworthy principles to guide him in new and wider ranges of thought.

More important, however, than furnishing independent standards of grammatical correctness, is the acquisition of material for the higher adaptations of language for rhetorical ends. Rhetoric presupposes that habits of correct speech have been formed, and proceeds to its proper task, the conscious manipulation of correct speech to secure determinate effects of clearness, force, and beauty. It is here that technical grammar comes into its own. It is the best—indeed the only—preparation for the

intelligent study of rhetoric, the only true foundation for *effective* speech. In this higher study all the fundamental principles of grammar, including both etymology and syntax, are reviewed in the light of their contribution to the ends of clearness, force, and beauty. And in this review these principles are seen to be alive, full of new significance. In fact, their significance is now for the first time seen in its entirety.

Here too comes the inevitable introduction to other lines of philological inquiry, such as word-formation, the life history of words, the study of idiom and vernacular, and the like. The young writer now begins to feel a sense of mastery over his raw materials. He seeks a certain effect, not by imitating those who may have produced that effect, but by making deliberate choice of the linguistic means to the accomplishment of it.

These, then, are the two direct and primary purposes of the technical study of the language: first, the intelligent systematization of the materials of expression; secondly, the independent and efficient manipulation of these materials for determinate rhetorical ends.

If we now add to these two the incidental but important aims of a wide range of interesting and valuable information, an exceptionally fine discipline in logical analysis and synthesis, and the ethical training of a most exacting pursuit of science, we shall have before us a convincing array of argument for grammatical study in the school. By means of this study the maturing mind passes out of the unstudied, hap-hazard art of childish expression to the conscious, calculating, masterful art of the scholar. It is the gateway to all true appreciation of literature, and the essential condition to all genuine literary production. It is the technique of the artist.

Literary expression in the twentieth century is still one of the fine arts. Literary "inspiration" is still as real and as vital to the art as in the days of Sappho and Theocritus, but it has in it to-day more of the characteristics of an exact science as well. Most men who write successfully for the public to-day do so not just because they have natural gifts of expression, but because

they have learned how to do it, by patient study of the means theoretically known to accomplish that end. Less and less is left to the dictates of a judgment and taste picked up by imitation and rule-of-thumb, and more and more depends upon a cool, mathematical calculation and selection of more or less standardized means to predetermined ends.

All of which relates to Johnny, although he doubtless would have been little edified by the discussion.

Obviously Johnny is never to be afflicted again in the old medieval way with dry-as dust rule and paradigm in the lower elementary grades. If in the upper grades of the common school he shall have learned to recognize the parts of speech, to distinguish the simpler elements of the sentence, and to know and use a few fundamental laws of grammatical concord and reference, he may well be spared the more serious study of technical grammar until he reaches the high school.

Even in the high school, moreover, grammar should be made a means rather than an end of study, being developed somewhat inductively in connection with daily practice in composition and the study of classics. The simpler technique of high-school rhetoric furnishes abundant opportunity for scientific language study. In the study of the prescribed classics also constant occasion is offered for the critical observation of such philological problems as the etymology and significance of felicitous words that have impressed or should impress the pupil. Here, if ever, the dictionary habit will be formed. If the teacher have a true "Sprachgefül" he will impart a wholesome enthusiasm for word study, the only real foundation for genuine literary culture and artistry.

In conclusion, then, while the clamor for the immediately practical has banished the old-style grammar from the schoolroom to the unquestioned benefit of all concerned, there is yet seen to be a legitimate and necessary place for this much abused subject in a course of study that assumes to fit boys and girls for having to do in any serious way with the high things of mind and spirit. And there is no educational aim or policy more truly practical than that.

Classification of Junior High School Pupils by the Otis Scale

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UNLESS subject matter is adapted to the mental ability or learning capacity of pupils it can have very little educative value for them. If classes are not grouped according to their mental ability it is practically impossible to present subject matter in such a way that the majority of the class may grasp it. In the average recitation there can be found three and perhaps four distinct groups of pupils. Otis describes three types. First, there are those to whom the conduct of the recitation seems fairly well adapted. They give good attention and learn moderately well. Second, there are the pupils who do not seem to be able to keep up with the discussion; when questioned they show difficulty in grasping the fundamental points of the lesson. Such pupils, indeed, may have "passed" in the work of the previous grade. Very likely they show lack of interest because of lack of understanding, and often give up trying to follow. They then either fall into a sort of dreamy state or listen hopelessly while the discussion passes entirely over their heads. Subsequent individual instruction is often necessary to enable them to continue with the subject. Third, there are the pupils who understand the teacher's first explanations. Often they are not given an immediate opportunity of self-expression, but are compelled to listen quietly while a second or third detailed explanation is given for the benefit of the less intelligent pupils. These pupils then either sit in a state of greater or less boredom or cast about for some mischief in which to expend their surplus energies.

It is becoming a well-recognized fact that a pupil who falls in the first group in one subject tends to fall in the same group in all

subjects, and that the same is true of pupils falling in the second or third groups. There may be, here and there, marked exceptions to this rule, but it is true in general. One is naturally led to the conclusion, therefore, that the pupils of the second type mentioned simply lack the general mental capacity to assimilate knowledge as rapidly as the other pupils. One is led to conclude also that the pupils of the third type mentioned possess a degree of native mental ability which enables them to acquire knowledge more rapidly than do their fellows.

This being the case, if it is possible to teach the "bright" pupils separately, so that they might progress as rapidly and to as great a degree of achievment as their capabilities would permit, then a great injustice is done them by holding them to the lockstep of the middle group. It is to these exceptional children that the nation must look for the creative genius and leadership by means of which society may evolve a greater civilization. Similarly, if the "dull" pupils could be taught separately at a slower rate of progress, which would permit them to keep up with the discussions, take an interest in the subjects, and learn all that their capabilities permitted, then, similarly, a great injustice is done these pupils by permitting them to more than waste their time in dragging through what is to them unintelligible discussion and to acquire "the habit of failure." The almost inevitable outcome of such maladjustment is the premature quitting of school and the consequent misfortune of a half-finished education accompanied by a feeling of malevolence toward the school and society.

The writer gave the Otis Intelligence Scale to 397 Junior High School pupils in Lawrence, Kansas, and classified them in classes according to their I. Q's. The teachers' estimate at times played some part in the classification. The correlation between the teachers estimate and Otis I. Q's was found to be .79—P. E. O.—.45.

The Otis' classification of I. Q's is as follows:

Above 140, near genius.

130-140—18.7%, 74 cases.

110-120, superior intelligence.

90-110, normal.
80-90, dull.
70-80, borderline.
Below 70, feebleminded.

The result of this study gave the following:

Distribution of I. Q's—397 cases.
Above 140—12.5%, 49 cases.
130-140—18.7%, 74 cases.
110-120—10.8%, 43 cases.
90-110—27.2%, 108 cases.
80-90—16.8%, 67 cases.
70-80—7.8%, 31 cases.
Below 70—6.3%, 25 cases.

Percent of cases above normal, 42%.
Percent of cases normal, 27.2%.
Percent of cases above normal and normal, 69.2%.
Percent of cases below normal, 31%.

The high percent of feeblemindedness is due to the large number of retarded negroes. Fifty-seven negroes were enrolled and seventeen of this number or 29.8% were feebleminded according to the Otis Scale. Eight out of three hundred-forty white pupils were feebleminded, or 2.3%. In this Junior High School there are three rather distinct groups of pupils. The normal and accelerated group who will very probably continue their education beyond junior and senior high schools; the second group, a large percent in the "dull" classification have made somewhat normal progress through the elementary school and will very probably stop school before they reach the senior high school; the third group are mature pupils, who are retarded three and four years, and have not completed the elementary school, but who have been placed in junior high school and allowed to pursue subjects which their abilities and interests may permit. This accounts for the rather large percent of probable and definite feeblemindedness. With these three groups in junior high school, classification by the Otis Scale simplifies matters of discipline, subject matter and methods.

Two years comprise the junior high school course. In the first half of the seventh grade there were ninety-one pupils and these were classified into three classes according to the I. Q's as follows:

Class I 112 to 140 and above,	33 pupils.
Class II 87 to 110	32 pupils.
Class III Below 70 to 80	26 pupils.

In the second half of the seventh grade there were one hundred and six pupils. This group was divided into four classes according to the I. Q's as follows:

Class I 120 to 140 and above,	29 pupils.
Class II 100 to 120	30 pupils.
Class III 80 to 100	27 pupils.
Class IV Below 70 to 80	20 pupils.

In the first half of the eighth grade there were eighty-four pupils. This group was divided into three classes according to the I. Q's as follows:

Class I 120-140 and above,	26 pupils.
Class II 90-120	29 pupils.
Class III Below 70 to 85	29 pupils.

In the second half of the eighth grade there were one hundred sixteen pupils classified according to the I. Q's as follows:

Class I 120 to 140 and above,	29 pupils.
Class II 107 to 120	29 pupils.
Class III 88 to 105	31 pupils.
Class IV Below 70 to 80	27 pupils.

The point of division between any two groups is arbitrary and is determined largely by the size of the group. There will naturally be some overlapping between the groups. The writer feels that the distinguishing feature of the Otis Scale is in classifying the normal and lower end of intelligence, the dull, borderline and feebleminded.

The grouping must be flexible and wherever a pupil does a

better piece of work than the standard of his group he is placed in a higher group and likewise when a pupil fails to do the work of his group he is placed in a lower division.

This new classification will be of little value unless a new course of study is developed for each group. Unless we work out subjct matter and methods suited to the needs of these several groups, it will be impossible for the teachers to adapt their work to them. Without a definite course of study and definite methods for each group the teachers will continue to present the subject matter that is adapted to the normal pupil and the needs of the accelerate and retarded child will not be met.

Aggregate and Average Total Score by years in the Seventh Grade.

Age	11	12	13	14	15	16
No. in Group	14	69	54	31	17	3
Aggregate Tot. Sc.	1326	7511	5274	2557	1364	128
Aver. Tot. Sc.	94.71+	108.84+	97.66+	82.48+	80.23+	42.66+

Aggregate and Average Total Score by years in the Eighth Grade.

Age	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
No. in Group	2	20	42	33	16	7	2
Aggregate Tot. Sc.	203	2383	4652	3108	1514	508	110
Aver. Tot. Sc.	101.50	119.15	110.76	94.18	94.61+	72.57+	55.

HARMONY HILL

Helen Cary Chadwick,—Retired Teacher.

I. Harmony Within Oneself

FOR a good many years our family of "we two" have tried to climb what we call Harmony Hill, and the results of our simple experiment may interest others. It makes no difference in this matter what one's place or religion is, for Harmony Hill is a necessary part of any religious road, as well as of every highway to worldly success. Ah, as everybody knows—the gloomy mornings! All of us have troubles, many severe ones, and the idea of cultivating happy thoughts in the face of such is apt to make us turn away with a surly feeling of reproach and defiance before what exists, the almost insurmountable notion that "someone has blundered" —the world isn't run right!

Right or wrong, we've got to help run it! Shall we clog its wheels with all sorts of hindrances from pebbles to bricks? Is this wise? Questions like these led us to establish Harmony Hill as a permanency in our daily walk.

We wake, the sun may or may not shine. With varying feelings we prepare for breakfast. What spirit do we carry with us to the day's opening meal? How the heart sinks before the expression of settled gloom, the sour look, the curt answer or no answer at all! We all know the wet-blanket person, who assumes, by his air at least, that none are troubled but himself, and even he, the prime sufferer, is hatefully and light-heartedly misunderstood! How it lightens the horizon on the contrary to greet one whose steady cheerfulness is dependable, to whom we turn trustfully for the bright look, the hearty goodwill, the determined buoyancy! Such people carry an atmosphere of healing, they are like a brimming well in a thirsty land. "All very well," I hear one say, "But if you had my trouble, you couldn't be like that."

It is, of course, not easy; but neither is any other acquirement of value easy. A very dear friend, a young girl of unusual make-up altogether, a very great sufferer, knew there was nothing for her but lingering death. Yet she loved life, and in all her beauteous character and normal instincts was fitted to enjoy it. The modest means of the family were taxed to care for her, and she was dependent on an ailing and hard-worked mother, who seldom went beyond the yard, being wholly devoted to her daughter. What had this girl in life to encourage her to effort? She calmly faced the situation and came to the determination that she would not think about herself. To this determination she adhered through years of supreme trial. I had taught her something of Greek history, and with a gift of money she purchased the Victory of Samothrace, a visible sign and reminder—I learned later—of what she meant to do. I knew, from hints she dropped, that on one side she felt the power of a universal Harmony; on the other, a bottomless pit of despair from which she turned shuddering. Letting go Harmony, all the overwhelming tragedy of her situation flung her soul to chaos. Carefully, patiently, hour by hour, she refused to look into that pit, and cultivated harmony. Shortly before her death she told her mother, " I believe that utter self-abnegation will come some time to everyone; and, if he can embrace its cross without bitterness, Victory is near."

Her memory is, as her presence ever was, an undying inspiration. She lives, a factor in uplifting the souls of men; for such a life, once accomplished, is with power; it becomes a cause ineradicable. If she could do this, can not we imitate her in our probably lesser troubles? And if, day after day, we persist, as she did, in being harmonious, in thought, in emotion, in deed, under all stress, the right road will become present with us as it did with her; we shall feel a lapse of personal responsibility, a restful conviction that we have invoked a Power and Love and Wisdom that are at the wheel, a conviction that we have entered a state of being where, despite surrounding inharmony, all is well.

II. Harmony With Neighbors.

This is a great subject. Be sure of one thing, everybody is imperfect; those who live near each other see faults and weaknesses unavoidably. Our own failings—of which we may not even be aware—grate on and irritate others as much as theirs do us. To say, " I have no fault," is to show the greatest fault of all, an inability to measure and so cultivate one's self.

See the virtues . Enumerate them in the case of each neighbor, and discover how many and how good they are. If a neighbor shows habitually actual conscience-lack, a disposition to maliciously exploit, and harmonious relations are impossible, then simply be silent, pleasant on meeting, and, refusing to be exploited, go your own way. But, whatever his faults, if a neighbor seems desirous of doing right, we have no excuse in ignoring him.

It is a failing of humanity that it loves to try reforming others, while often at the same time leaving one's self like an unweeded garden. It is certainly our proper job to reform self first. Who will do it, if the owner of a personality will not bestir himself to better it? We instinctively resent our neighbor's tinkering on us; rightly, for he cannot be a close judge of our temptations and makeup. Forces are constantly at work within us of which he knows nothing. It is well to hold not even evil thoughts over one's neighbor. How would you like it to know he was always dissecting and ridiculing you?

Jeremiah Jenks in one of his civic books says, that each nation holds itself to be the enlightened one, and the rest inferior. This attitude is sometimes adopted toward neighbors, a pitying, high-nosed tolerance. Such is the outcome of egotism and blindness in seeing one's own lack. It makes the inferior person feel comfortable. His neighbors may be superior to him, compelled to exercise pity and tolerance in his behalf. Harmony is in every way best. To regard neighbors sincerely, admiring the virtues, seeking to estimate truly the difficulties, is to strike a mine of sweet responsiveness. After awhile the neighbor trusts you, he desires to serve you, he singles you out as one in whom he could confide wisely, his heart and mind are turned to discover virtues in you. Many

persons starve for the appreciative word, for a recognition of what is really good in them; and following it, as plant growth follows the touch of the sunlight, comes effort to deserve the praise, and to gain more. By such means is gradually cemented a union for harmony, a help to neighborhood, town and nation. This neighborhood goodwill forms one solid brick in the edifice of brotherhood.

III. Harmony With The Community.

Our townspeople are divided into groups of differing outlooks, in politics, religion, tastes and manners. To draw yourself exclusively into any one class and look upon the rest as alien, is to be uncommunal, provincial, in a sense lacking in public spirit. There must naturally be differences, and to seek points of affiliation with those with whom we differ cultivates, broadens, promotes cordiality, wears off the sharp edges of judgments. The old truth, "By their fruits ye shall know them," should be our guide.

A town fellow's politics may be to us the most contrary he could select; his religious views may offend us, his tastes may take pleasure in what we reject, his manners may in our esteem need improvement; but, if he has a good moral character, if he is clean in his habits, pays his bills, keeps his home sightly, is interested, in short, thus plainly in the public weal as well as in his personal standing, he is a good citizen; we should so greet him, inviting him to so greet us.

And, if a man falls below good citizenship, is it not his due from the community of which he forms a part that it should be interested, not in his condemnation but in his betterment? Citizens below the average standard may often be helped up; if it becomes necessary to kick them up, this should be done with a sharp eye to the betterment also, in no way as revenge. Even the lowest senses the motive under which he is judged.

Harmony is potent here. Do you mean, one says, we should drink with the drunkard, steal with the thief, and so on, to secure harmony? By no means; such a course would in the outcome increase discord. But, if the communal mind holds such persons

as a problem and a responsibility, not as outcasts, they will be more responsive to this harmonious influence than to inharmony, more likely to achieve good citizenship. The sinister whisper, the evil eye, the rolling under the tongue of the morsel of gossip, what do they accomplish except to put the desired harmony further away, to injure one's own character by the indulgence? If we loved people more, we should not be so inclined to make their weaknesses a source of mischievous entertainment. How we tingle and resent if we hear the least evil said of ourselves! Fundamentally, all men are brothers, because the Creator is Father of us all; and to have the desire to uplift all is communal. Ways and means follow the sincere wish.

Without the spirit of union, we should have no towns, no beneficient institutions, none of the great delightful works which united effort alone can produce; no wealth of stimulating friends and acquaintances.

Perhaps you cannot fill public office; but the cultivation of communal harmony is a great public service which any one may perform.

What Portions of Scripture Shall We Use in School?

By Stephen G. Rich, Concord State Normal, Athens, West Virginia.

THERE can be little doubt that the Bible is coming back into the schools. Whether we like it or not, we must recognize the fact. There has been in the last decade a distinct turn in the opinion of the American public: the sentiment in favor of having at least some part of the Bible read at some time in school is distinctly on the increase. Probably it is right that this should be so: the ethical teachings of the Bible are certainly as much a part of our national ideals as any expression of popular government by Lincoln or in the Declaration of Independence itself.

The exact mode in which the Bible is to return and the extent to which it is to return, we cannot as yet determine. In a negative way, however, we can say definitely that the schools of this country are not going to be the scenes of sectarian teaching of any sort; nor are the clergy probably going to be called in as instructors. It would appear more than likely that in the use of Scriptures selections for reading aloud in morning assembly, and in the use of some Scriptural narratives for reading instead of the more modern selections in the readers now in use, the immediate future trend lies. In this article, I aim to discuss the suitability of the various sections of Scripture, as judged purely from the schoolman's viewpoint.

Preliminary to the discussion, certain situations must be made clear. The objections of various sects will have to be met in the localities in which they are strong. In New York City the Hebrew sect will of course object to the New Testatment entirely. In strongly Unitarian centers, such as exist in some towns in Massachusetts, there may be expected objection to any portions

that would suggest a more orthodox view. Instances might be mutiplied, but it is needless. I do not propose to deal with this situation, but rather to accept it as one of the further local conditions to which the intelligent schoolmen of each place will have to adapt their work.

Up to the present, we have no lists of Scriptural selections made out from the educational viewpoint exclusively. Such lists as have been suggested are usually made on the basis of custom or of the preferences of the adult. I have before me, for example, a list circulated by a Mrs. Harsh at a recent convention of West Virginia teachers at Huntington. The proposed Scriptural syllabus begins with the story of the Creation, followed by Adam and Eve. Then followed Cain and Abel, Noah, Abraham, Issac, Jacob, Joseph, etc. In the New Testament selections are the first chapter of John, and two chapters of Revelation. I have not a word at this juncture to say as regards the intrinsic qualities of these, but I do wish to emphasize their unsuitability for children.

A further difficulty is that of the many versions of the Bible. From the educationalist's viewpoint, it may be questioned whether the use of the Authorized Version has anything to commend it. Certainly, the difficulties due to archaic and obscure language are at a maximum in that version. There is much improvement in the Revised Version, especially the American Revised: the most misleading of the obscurities and archaisms are removed, but the familiar rhythms are in the main retained. But there is more to be said. I am convinced that a student of English style, coming without bias to the various versions, would without hesitation pick either the Twentieth Century New Testament or the Weymouth New Testament as the versions of highest literary merit. On the Old Testament the choice is more limited; but it is probable that the recent Philadelphia version, made by leading scholars of the Hebrew language, would receive the same approbation. From the school viewpoint, the versions with the least difficulties of language are certainly the most desirable ones to use.

I now come to the matter of the choice of sections for school use. A systematic survey will perhaps be the most convenient presentation.

Old Testament—Genesis: It is open to question whether the first three chapters of Genesis have either any interest or any moral lesson for the child in school. Inasmuch as the first chapter is the one about which the greatest dogmatic and antidogmatic quarrel of the last century was waged, it might be a very tactful procedure not to use it. The fact of its being wholly out of accord with our more accurate knowledge of the order in which living things came into existence should make us reluctant to teach it to children. The extremely anti-woman attitude of the story of the Temptation is hardly conducive to the acquiring of the esteem for women which is part of the American moral ideals. The story of Cain, and Abel, on the other hand, is in every way to be recommended.

The story of Noah is certainly to be recommended from the school viewpoint; likewise the chapters on Abraham and Isaac.

When we approach the story of Jacob, there is room for much doubt. Is the story of Jacob deceiving Isaac and of his attempt later to truckle to his brother Esu, grown propserous, a good example to hold up to children? I am strongly of the opinion that this story, like that of Adam and Eve, is better left out of our schools.

For the story of Joseph there can be little else but praise. Both in appealing quality for children and in moral content, it will satisfy the most captious. Not a bad plan would be to discard all portions of Scripture previous to this story: in that way neither rationalist nor orthodox Christian can be offended, and there is no great loss of valuable material.

Exodus to Deuteronomy: The portions of Exodus dealing with the life and doings of Moses (2, 3, 4, 14, 19, 20) are without doubt among the more desirable sections of the Bible for school use. For upper grades they are interesting and useful reading.

The chapters dealing with the Ten Commandments are certainly in place in school.

Joshua: The first nine chapters form a narrative of great interest to the children of school age. Chapter 6, because of the vengefulness and partiality shown, may be open to objection. The remainder of the book is of slight interest, and as it contains a chapter (10) which has been the cause of much heated dispute, it is very well left in oblivion.

Judges: The stories of Deborah and Samson (4, 5, 14, 15, 16) are the valuable portions of this book. The narrative of Gideon (6, 7, 8) may be of interest for reading in upper grades, but is probably of little value for any other use.

Ruth: The whole book is to be recommended in every way.

Books of Samuel, Kings and Chronicles: It is open to question whether there is any material in these books that can be presented effectively to children. In particular, the accounts of Saul and David are not desirable: both of them did so many cruel and unrighteous acts that it would be wiser not to make the children acquainted with them.

Ezra and Nehemiah: These books offer at best only isolated passages useful in the school, and are best omitted entirely.

Esther: In the sixth grade and above that, this book is certainly a fascinating selection for reading. Whether it carries any message at all to children below that age is open to question. It has the great objection, of course, that it foments a feeling of racial difference and of religious isolation among the children of Hebrew faith who happen to be in the class. A skillful teacher can probably offset this. The reading of this book or parts of it in morning assembly is of dubious value.

Job: A book appealing to the adult only.

Psalms: Since this is a book of religious poetry, many parts of it will be well adapted for reading at morning assembly, but little of it will be worth while for any other purpose. The more familiar and beautiful psalms are 1, 23, 27, 32, 41, 98, 100, 121, 150. It is my judgment that the shorter psalms are usually better adapted to school use.

Proverbs: The reading of proverbs at morning assembly will vary in desirability according to the time and place and

especially the person reading. I hesitate to make any definite statement, therefore.

Ecclesiastes: The viewpoint and thought are not only adult, but even somewhat that of old age, and the use of sections of this book is hardly to be recommended.

Isaiah to Malachi: It is exceedingly doubtful if there is any portion of the Prophetic Books that is well adapted to school use, unless it be the account of Belshazzar's feast in Daniel 5. It is certain that all prophecy and symbolism is beyond the mental grasp of children and hence uninteresting to them.

New Testament—The Four Gospels: Of the four Gospels, that of John, which appeals most to the adult reader, is the particular one that is least appealing to children. Matthew is probably the Gospel which children can read with most perceptivity, and it is certainly desirable as a source of readings for morning assembly. Chapter 1 is of course to be omitted. In choosing the selections due regard must be had for the persons to whom they are read; for example, the Sermon on the Mount is probably too abstract and condensed for any school child to appreciate: also, when a principal, who has to judge pupils reads "Judge not that ye be not judged," it it likely to diminish his prestige and that of the school. The "Children's Passage" (Mark 10, 13-24) is probably best omitted, as in my experience children do not like that condescending attitude. In order to avoid situations which might arouse the controversial among the parents, certain parts, really not essential, may well be left out: these are the miracles, as in Matthew 15 and Luke 5, and the fulfilment of prophecy, as in Luke 4. The whole first chapter of Luke is well to omit.

In the book of John the first chapter, though made up of simple words, is of so abstract and so complex a content that it probably carries no meaning whatsoever to any child in school.

Acts: There is very little in this book that could be of value in school. The conversion of Saul (9), is probably the one incident that will appeal to children.

The Epistles: It is exceedingly doubtful if there are any

passages in these that are of interest or value to children, since most of the subject-matter is sufficiently complex to require an adult mind for its comprehension or even apprehension. I have not located any texts here that would serve for school use; but it will be clear that if any teacher has a favorite selection, that might well be used.

Revelation: The rich imagery of this book will undoubtedly endear it to children, but there is room for question as to whether it can exert any moral or religious effect: it is more probably taken in by them in the same way as a fine fairy-tale. The last few chapters are certainly the least adapted of all for school use.

It will be seen thus that if we do not allow tradition to influence us, but choose the passages most applicable for school use, we have a bulk of matter aggregating some twelve thousand words at least, from which to choose our readings. Surely this should be enough to satisfy any teacher.

The matter of committing Scriptural selections to memory ought to be discussed, in conclusion. It is open to grave question whether a selection, memorized without content, can in later life become effective in more than one case in perhaps a hundred, for any purpose. A far more effective manner of handling the matter, in communities where the sentiment is favorable to memory-work, is to read the chosen selection often at morning assembly, and after several such repetitions, to ask the school to say it with the leader the next time. The piece will thus be memorized unconsciously by the pupils, and the evil effects of making a specific and usually unwelcome task of this work will be avoided.

Oral Arithmetic

Supt. W. F. Weisend, Nampa, Idaho.

ON account of its great usefulness, oral arithmetic deserves a conspicuous place in the curriculum of the schools. Many teachers fail to recognize its full importance and in most schools where its value is appreciated, the conduct of the exercise, to a considerable degree, defeats its purpose. For maximum effectiveness many factors must be applied: The pupils and not the teacher must prepare and state the majority of the examples and problems. Self-activity, properly controlled, is essential to the growth and development of any individual or organization and this fundamentally important principle of education about which so much is said and so little done opplies with over-whelming force to the procedure of the oral arithmetic exercise. Self-activity motivates the class period; it insures drill plus *INTEREST*; every face is bright with enthusiasm; every pupil is enkindled with the desire to participate; it is like a fascinating game in which every pupil eagerly and spontaneously plays his part. Self-activity is the secret of its success. No coach ever developed a winning team by carrying the ball himself. Drill as ordinarily used, without thought or motivation, is largely a waste of time; it kills the interest of the pupils and makes nervous wrecks of many teachers. Drill when properly used is a joy to both pupils and teachers.

I do not mean to convey the impression that the teacher is a nonentity during the class period as she most decidedly is not. During every exercise she should give a few of the examples and problems to guide the class in their preparation. The teacher guides and directs and prevents waste of time. If an example or problem is too difficult or too easy or if it is not practical, she interferes. All examples and problems should conform to actual life conditions. Oral arithmetic besides giving a constant review

of the fundamentals and other operations also emphasizes the arithmetic that should predominate outside of school, that is, arithmetic without a pencil. It means a decided saving of time for the pupils after they leave school. It also eliminates the common September complaint of teachers that "During vacation John seems to have forgotten everything that he ever learned in arithmetic."

Every arithmetic class period should begin with a sharp oral drill occupying about one-third of the time of the class period and preferably a greater proportion of the time in the lower grades.

The following are typical examples and problems prepared and solved by pupils on a given day.

Third Grade

$63 \div 7, + 10, + 1, \div 5, + 8, \div 4 =$
$8 \times 2, \div 4, + 5, \div 3, + 9, \div 3 =$
$10 \times 2, \div 4, + 10, \div 5, +6 =$
$3 + 9, \times 2, \div 6, \times 9, \div 4 =$

If oranges are fifty cents a dozen how much can I buy for two dollars?

If I had twenty-five cents, and bought some sugar for thirty-four cents, how much more did I need?

If there are twelve eggs in one dozen, how many dozen will forty-eight eggs make?

If fifty-four people worked in a factory and one-sixth of them were laid off, how many were laid off?

Fourth Grade

$56 \div 7, \times 8, - 4, \div 6, =$ ⅛ of what number?
1/7 of 35, $+ 6, \times 3, - 3, \div 6, + 4 =$
1/5 of 45, $\times 8, \div 12, \times 6, \div 4, + 3 =$
$35 + 5, \div 8, \times 9, - 3, \div 6 =$ ¼ of what number?

If two pounds of sugar cost $.50, how much will 8 pounds cost?

A man divides $36 among four boys. How much does each boy get?

If a boy earns $4.00 for delivering for one day, how much will he earn in two weeks?

If 6 tablets cost 72 cents how much will 5 tablets cost?

Two boys can do a piece of work in 2 weeks. How long will it take 4 boys to do the same piece of work?

Fifth Grade.

6 × 6, × 2, ⅛ of it, 2/3 of it, square it, — 20, ⅞ of it?

Square 4, ⅞ of it, ×2, ÷ 3, add ½?

1/5 of 55, add 5, take ¾ of it, ¾ of it, 2/3 of it, 2/3 of it. That is 4/5 of what number?

4 × 8, ¾ of that, 1/3 of that, ¾ of that, that is 1/3 of what number?

If Mary had a garden that had 6 pansies and 24 sweet peas, what part of 100 would that be?

If a car goes 15 miles an hour, how far can it go in 1 minute?

If a man had 50 sheep and he sold 2/5 of them to 1 man and ½ of what he had left to another man, how many did he sell?

If a man has 200 acres and he sold ¾ of them, how many acres did he have left?

If my gas bill is $10.50 for three months, how much will it be in one year?

Sixth Grade.

3 × 6, ½ of that, × 3, the cube root of it, add 5, ¾ of it?

7 × 8, — 2, 2/9 of it, add 3, ÷ 4 =

2/3 × ¾, add 2½, × 9, 2/3 of that, add ¾, — ½ =

7× 7, — 1, ⅜ of that, add 2, ÷ 6?

If 1 yd. of cloth cost 96c. how much will ¾ of a yard cost?

If John is 36 years old and Mary is 2/3 as old, how old is Mary?

If 4 yds, of cloth cost $1.28, what will 1 and ⅜ yds. cost?

If a bushel of potatoes cost $4.40, how much will 3 pks. cost?

Seventh Grade.

6 × 7, — 2, that is what part of 100, × 10, cube it.

32, 75% of it, 37½% of that, square it, subtract 1, and take 2/5 of that.

6 × 6, — 4, take 37½% of that, 33 1/3% of that, — 3, add 2/3, add ½.

4 × 4, 12½% of that, — 2/3, add ½, — 1.

Cube 4, 12½% of that, double it, the square root of that, that is what % of 12?

5 × 9, add 3, 87½ of that, add 1, 50% of that?

Square 5, subtract 1, 25% of it, cube it, 50% of it, 1/12 of it, the square root of it?

2 plus 1, cube that, add 3, 10% of that, — 2, add 2/3, add ¼, add 1, add 5/12.

A grocer bought one 100 lb. bag of sugar for $20.00. He sold it for 25% more than he paid for it. How much did he gain on 1 lb?

If a dealer buys organges at 60c. per dozen and sells them at $.06 each what is his gain percent on a dozen?

A man puts $100 in the bank at 4% interest. The bank loans this money at 6% interest. How much does the bank gain per year on $100?

If a man has 50 acres of land and he sells 35, what per cent has he left?

If a candy dealer sells chocolates at 90c. a lb. with a 15c. gain, what is the gain per cent?

If I sold a lot for $16,000 in which I lost 20%, what would be the cost?

Eighth Grade.

600, 1/3% of it, × 4, 250% of it, ¾ of it, ÷ 4 =

8 × 5, add 2, 1/6 of it, ½ of it, drop the whole number, ¼ of it, square it.

5× 5, — 1, 33 1/3% of it, cube root of it, ¼ of it, × 2/3.

2/3 × ¾, add ½, × 6, 33 1/3% of it, ½ of it, 50% of it, ÷ 1/16.

Find the cost price of a house if the selling price was $5400, which included a gain of 20%.

If a desk was sold for $90.00 and 90% was paid, how much remained unpaid?

How many board feet in a board 12 feet long, 8 inches wide and 2 inches thick?

What is the loss per cent on a bicycle that was bought for $45.00 and sold for $30.00?

If $2500 is the list price and $100 is the discount, what is the rate of discount?

A Thought

How many saw it fling
Diamonds before their feet?
How many heard it sing?
How many did it greet?
How many felt a thing
Shoot by the street?
Clear as a mass-bell's ring,
Free as a soaring wing,
Pure as a mountain spring,
Fruitful as wheat.

Who spied it on the hills
At gray of morn,
Sporting where Nature spills
Beauty new-born?
Laughing at human ills—
Heedless of scorn.
Mayhap, its heart as wild
As any gypsy child,
Mayhap, as reconciled
As nun just shorn.

A charger through the land,
A splash of spray,
A fleck of colored sand,
A searing ray,
A sombre, warning hand
And—away!
O ye fantastic band,
Who tills your native land?
Where are your courses planned
Day after day?

Whence are your blossoms blown
Fruit for the mind?
Who hath your wonder sown?
Where shall we find
Orchards wherein you're grown
Of human kind?
Uplifted hands have caught
Flame from a fire of thought
Some Vulcan forge hath wrought
Some God designed;—
Nothing plus nothing, naught,
Sightless, is blind.

ALDA DOROTHEA LEAW

Teaching the Art of Appreciation

Eunice K. Armstead, New Haven, Conn.

"Music is first of all something to be felt, and it is one of the arts which does not always explain itself."—*Dolores Bacon.*

MUSIC is not merely a concord of sweet sounds. When the composer walks through the pathless woods and feels their silence, their beauty, and their life, or traverses the road along the stream and hears the gentle lapping of the waters, or is uplifted in his soul by the sweet atmosphere, the blue sky, and the singing of the birds, his mind strives to express in sounds, in melody and harmony, the emotions that are stirred. If he has the gift and the art, he can give the magic touch to the keys of the piano, or the strings of the violin, and make the record in notes upon the paper.

So often we hear, "I don't know much about music or pictures, but I know what I like!" How small and insignificant the pleasure and satisfaction that come from such "liking." To increase the power to understand, to feel, to think, is also to add immeasurably to the joy of life.

It is a pitiful thing that our schools send out into the world so many young people who can sing a little, play a little, join in the popular acclaim over a symphony concert or a musical recital, but in their hearts like best the street song, the jazz music of the day.

These have their places, no doubt, they are not without value, but they are not high forms of art and could have been enjoyed without any musical training. Music should be so taught that it will minister not only to the primal senses, but will arouse the highest and deepest emotions, stir the noblest impulses, move the intellect and spirit, and help manhood onward and upward to great thoughts and deeds.

This may be good theory: how can it be put into practice?

Once it was considered sufficient to teach the young to read the score of the music, to sound the notes correctly, to sing with good tone and in harmony with others, and to observe the written marks of expression.

But, alas, when that has been done, unless the soul has been stirred, there is little music. There may have been melody and harmony, but unless the emotions have been aroused, the sounds will be cold and lifeless, like marble statues perhaps, but not like living, breathing humanity.

It is plain that the daily routine of the study of technique must go on, but it should be supplemented by instruction so subtle that it will not jar the sensitive soul, and so suggestive that it will stir even the careless youth. As often as may be some of the noblest compositions should be listened to. The subject, the motive, what was in the mind of the composer, what perhaps he had seen or heard, the music itself will not tell except to those who also have seen and heard and thought. Therefore I would have the teacher suggest in the best words at his command the motives, the scenes, the thoughts, the joys or sorrows, the visions or aspirations that seem to have inspired the composer. The rare souls may not need this instruction, but most of us hear only with our ears and need suggestions to show us how to see and hear with our minds and souls. And it is the great majority who have a right to this sort of instruction.

One should not begin with difficult compositions, but with imitative music in which can be discovered readily the songs of the birds, the rippling of the brook over the pebbles, the ringing of the anvil or the chiming bells. Step by step advance may be made to subtler music, that which reveals the desires of the heart, the longings of the soul, the ecstasy of the spirit.

And as it is with music, so it is with the fine art of painting. Until the mind has been led to run the gamut of color, until the observation has been trained to see the gradations of light and shade, until some knowledge has been acquired of perspective, until some degree of skill has been attained in technique, no one can intelligently enjoy a picture: but when these things have been

gained, appreciation stops short unless one knows that the artist is but an artisan if he fails to put upon his canvas the thoughts, the feelings, that the landscape or the subject inspire and thus express himself in his work and give his spirit to the picture. Important as technique is, the soul of the picture is something far and away beyond that. The sympathy which enables the expert to perceive in a picture the spirit of the painter is the secret of his power to discriminate between the work of the master and the clever imitation of the copyist. The ordinary observer cannot wholly realize his birthright of enjoyment of the painter's or the sculptor's art unless he, too, has learned to see and feel beyond the technique, the emotions, the spiritual uplift that impelled the master's brush.

The artist who communes with nature perceives not merely the form and proportion, the hues and tints, the changing lights and shadows, but if he be a creative genius his whole soul is suffused with the beauty so that his brush expresses not the similitude of the landscape, but the tenderness, the delicacy, the strength, the wonders with which his spirit is filled.

And so it behooves the teacher, not only to present the best examples of art to his classes, but to suggest so far as another may, the high ideas and ideals, the strength and beauty of character, the thoughts and feelings that express themselves in the picture.

In literature, also, and in oral expression this principle holds good; but here it has been for a long time better understood and our schools have taught more or less that the power of appreciation must precede the power of expression. Perhaps this is because literature lends itself more easily to the art of explanation.

Developing Leadership in the High School

H. Omer Bennett, A. B., Sumpter, Oregon.

FOR the past several years the attention of educators in America has been given to a very great extent to the training of the mental defectives in our schools. This has been done to such an extent that we have almost forgotten that we have just as many pupils, the mentally accelerated, at the other extreme. To the writer it appears high time we were paying some attention to these mentally accelerated pupils and that we try to shape courses of study for them—courses such as will hold them in school rather than drive them from school in disgust. In shaping the courses of study with the mental defectives in mind it causes the schools to turn out as products largely a crop of mediocres. It is impossible for any of these mental defectives to ever attain to any heights in the educational fields. If we are to believe in the efficacy of such tests as the Simon, Binet, Turman tests there are among these mental defectives those who can never pass beyond certain grades, e. g. the third, fourth, fifth, etc. They do not nor will they ever have the mental ability to pass beyond this point or grade in their educational career, and when we try to force them farther along we are only inviting trouble. The mental defective can never hope to become a leader of the right kind. One may carry an angle worm to the top of Eifel Tower or to the top of Mount Everest but it will still remain an angle worm. It is high time that we turn our attention to the group of accelerated pupils. What the world needs today more than anything else is *leaders*, men and women of ability, of broad vision and set courage, of power and ability to direct the thoughts and energies of others. This training of students for leadership should be particularly the work of the high schools and of institutions of higher learning. It is true that most Americans hold to the idea that the

purpose of the high schools is to promote good citizenship, whatever that may be stretched to mean. It may mean much or it may mean but little. Contrasted with this idea of the purpose of the high schools is that of the European ideal of secondary education, training the few for leadership. I see no reason why we cannot while developing the students into high types of citizens train them at the same time for leadership.

Of all the pupils who enter the Primary grade less than one-half graduate from the Eighth grade. Not nearly all those completing the Eighth grade enter high school. Of every one thousand entering high school only 458 ever complete the work of the high school and receive their diplomas. Putting it in another way of every one hundred entering the Primary grade only about eleven complete a high school course of four years. These facts within themselves show conclusively that those completing the high school course are among the select few in the country as a whole. Should we not then do more than we are doing or have been doing to train these students for leadership in their community and in the state? Are not the mass of the people as well as the taxpayers justified in looking to these for leadership? The failure of a large number of the high school graduates to accept leadership because of lack of training for such has caused a large number of people to condemn the high schools and claim that the results obtained from them do not justify the large expense necessary to their maintenance. Others are openly hostile to the high school, while others, and I believe these form the large majority of thinking people, believe that the work of the high schools can be and should be arranged to develop the various abilities of the students along lines of leadership. In preparing and training the students for leadership is that not training them for the highest types of citizenship?

The trend of modern education is and should be to train pupils to think in terms of the social group rather than in the terms of the individual; to train the individual pupil to think of himself in relation to the group. There is more to be gained in school than mere text book work and high grades of scholarship good

as these are. A student who works daily for high grades with that as a sole ideal becomes self centered and never attains to any power of leadership in the social and industrial activities of his community. Every school should hold up to the students as an ideal the idea of social service and a willingness on their part to assume social responsibilities. The high school should organize its various extra-curricula activities so as to give each student an opportunity to discover and develop his particular abilities; to train him so that he may appear before the public in an unembarrassed and effective manner; to help him establish a relation between his school work and the affairs of life, and to develop in him qualities of leadership. The question naturally arises what can the high schools do to help effect all this among the students. There is an old saying that we learn to do by doing. The way then to develop these qualities in the students is to give them opportunities through various kinds of organizations or extra-curricula activities in which they may try out their several abilities. It is the purpose of this paper to point out some of these activities in which the students may get some excellent training and to offer some suggestions in regard to some of them.

Every high school should have a well organized student body association and as many other organizations as it can well take of. These should be fully officered by the students themselves and they should be held responsible for the proper conduct of same under certain regulations laid down for them by the school authorities; to see that they keep within these regulations and to aid and direct the work of these organizations. There should be a faculty advisor for each of the several organizations. The faculty advisor should be appointed by the Principal of the high school,—to whom they should be responsible. It would be an ideal condition to require each and every student to do a certain amount of this extra-curricular work during each of the four years spent in the high school and that unless it was done no diploma would be issued to the student failing in this particular. It should be as much a part of the work of the high school as the required fifteen or sixteen units of scholastic work. I shall speak later of this phase of the work.

Every such high school organized student body should arrange its activities around a centralized head; that the students may enjoy closer co-operation and promote the general welfare of the school. It is best that the president should be chosen from the membership of the senior class, with a vice-president from each of the three classes. The treasurer should be chosen from among those who have had a course in bookkeeping if such a course is offered in the high school. The other officers, secretary and sargeant-at-arms, may be selected from the student body at large. To act for and on behalf of the student body in the control and direction of the school activities there should be a student council. This council should also act as trustees for the association in the control of all money and property belonging to the association. The superintendent of schools and the principal of the high school should be members of this council thus acting as the faculty advisors for the student body. If the student council and student body association be handled rightly many matters pertaining to the welfare of the school can be brought before the students for their betterment. These might be matters of conduct, discipline, scholarship, or matters of general welfare that might come up from time to time. In conducting the business of the association, and every student should be a member, they will develop ability to handle affairs in a larger way than is possible in the smaller organizations of the high school. Each class should be and usually is organized, *and* each should have a faculty advisor. It is well to have each class as a class give one or more programs during the year, either before the school or a public program, using the assembly period. The spirit of all these organizations should be "for the honor of the school" not "my organization or class first and the school second" as is sometimes found.

Every high school should handle whatever athletics it can do successfully. There is scarcely an organization in the school that develops such sterling qualities as does athletics when properly directed. The mere matter of learning team work and of surrendering self for the good of the whole is worth the effort of maintaining athletics in high school. There is one thing that I

believe would be a splendid thing for those interested in athletics especially the more strenuous forms such as football, that they require every member of the team to pass a physical examination before being admitted to a place on the team. The written consent of the parents of those trying out for the team would also be a good thing oftentimes.

In order that every student receive physical training if such is not provided for in the regular school work various sorts of organizations with this idea in mind can be affected. The cadet corps if there be among the members of the faculty one who can take charge of the drill work properly forms an excellent opportunity for the physical training of the boys. Every boy should be required to belong if not excused on account of physical disability to carry the work or for other fully legitimate reason. Girls are often interested in marching clubs or hiking clubs which afford physical exercise.

A Parliamentary Law Club should be formed in every high school for the study of parliamentary law procedures and affording an opportunity of putting this knowledge into practice. The work should be in charge of a member of the faculty who is familiar with the subject. The work offered by such a club would give the students ability in a short time to handle the business and the carrying on of the business of their meetings with dispatch. It would give a training which every student interested in leadership should have.

Debating could be taken up through a forensic club, or in connection with a parliamentary law club, or again it could be taken up with oratorical-declamatory work. If debating is not given as a regular part of the English course then it should be given as an extra-curricula activity.

The old fashioned literary society is also worth while in any high school. Many of our great public leaders received no small portion of their early training in a literary society or in the lyceum of their day. The dramatic club is another organization that finds a proper place in the high school. One of the troubles encountered in organizing and carrying on a dramatic club

is that a large number of students will try to get into this club. The best way to handle the situation is to have regular try-outs before admission may be had in the club either at the time of its organization or afterwards. Then only those of dramatic ability will be admitted. There are various sorts of musical organizations for the high school depending altogether upon the size of the high school and the musical abilities of the students. Among such organizations are the boys' glee club; the girls' glee club; the chorus; quartets, boys', girls', or mixed: the orchestra and even a full sized band. Such organizations are of great benefit to the school and also to the community at large.

Another most splendid organization for the high school is a Local History club, the purposes of which would be to study the history of the local community and to get it into some written tangible form. Each community has stories connected with its history which are not only interesting but thrilling. In tracing out many of these stories the student will find the work of history to be most interesting and entertaining. Oftentimes the student in studying local history gets his first inspiration in the study of history and learns that truth is stranger than fiction and that romance in its wildest diction is not half so strange as truth. The collecting these historic facts and gathering together materials of historic value and interest for a high school historical museum is highly commendable and furnishes at once a connecting link between the school and the people of the community.

The high school paper and the high school annual each afford the most interesting kind of work to those students who have inclinations towards journalism. Unless the high school is a large one it is best not to attempt the publication of both.

Among other clubs that might be mentioned as affording opportunity for the development of the abilities of the student might be mentioned the industrial club, the manual arts club where the high school maintains courses in manual training or domestic economy, agriculture clubs where the school maintains a course in agriculture, science club, a bird club, a camera club if the school is so arranged that it can afford a dark room, a social ser-

vice club, the Hi-Y Club which will afford religious training for the boys, the Y. W. Club affords the same opportunity for the girls, and a hiking club. Others would suggest themselves as the opportunity for them arises.

There should be enough of these organizations in the high school so as to afford each student an opportunity of developing his own particular abilities. Care should be exercised that too many oragnizations not be effected. Such would only tend to destroy all of the organizations. Neither should any of these take on the form of a secret organization with initiatory ceremonies attending them in the admission of members. Care should be exercised by the school authorities in reference to the time of meetings so that there be no conflicts. There should be a definite schedule of the regular meetings and no special meeting should be held except after advising with the principal and with the consent of the faculty advisor. These organizations should form a part of the education of every high school student. In the past too much attention has been given to mere text book work. It would be well to have each and every student belong to one or more of these organizations other than the student body association and his own class organization. As stated before it would be advisable to require that each student do a certain amount of this extra-curricula work before being granted a diploma. The offices and various duties of these organizations could be weighted by a point system so that it would be a matter of clerical work to keep the account of the number of points each student makes. The system of points which I offer here is merely a suggestion and could be altered to suit local conditions. The total number of points required of each student each year could be placed at from 25 to 30 or more thus making a total of from one hundred or more for the four years in high school. This number could be easily obtained by each and every student. I am also confident that work in these organizations instead of detracting from their regular class work will add to the interest of such work.

	Points.
STUDENT BODY ORGANIZATIONS.	
President of student body association	15
Secretary of student body association	10
Treasurer of student body association	10
Other officers of student body association	8
High School annual or paper:	
Managing editor	12
Editor	12
Business manager	12
Advertising manager	12
Other members of the staff	6
DEBATES AND ORATORICAL—DECLAMATORY CONTESTS.	
Participation in try-out	5
Participation in intra-school contest	6
Participation in inter-school contest	10
ATHLETICS.	
Captain of any athletic team throughout the season	10
Manager of same (student manager)	10
Participation in each inter-class game	2
Participation in each inter-school game	4
MUSICAL ORGANIZATIONS.	
For 80% attendance of all meetings, regular and special	5
For each participation in a public program	3
For participation in each program before school	2
Musical plays, as operettas, etc.:	
Major part for male character	5
Major part for lady character	5
Minor parts for either	3
DRAMATICS.	
President of Dramatic club	6
Other officers of club	4
Participation in play before public:	
For leading man	5
For leading lady	5
For all other characters	3

CADET CORPS.	
Captain	10
1st Lieutenant	7
2nd Lieutenant	5
Sargeants	3
Corporals	2
For 80% attendance at all drills and meetings of corps	5
OTHER ORGANIZATIONS.	
President of club	6
Secretary of club	4
Treasurer of club	3
Other officers of club	2
For 80% attendance at all meetings, regular and special	5
Participation in public program of club	3
Participation in program before school only	2
CLASS ORGANIZATIONS.	
President of senior class	8
President of each of the other classes	5
Secretary of any class	3
Treasurer of any class	2
Other officers	1
Participation in class program before school only	2
Participation in a class program, public	3

Recognition of high standards of scholarship might well be taken into consideration in so far as to give all honor students, those having grades above 90%, 5 points. These to be honor students for the entire year. Recognition might also be given those students who have had perfect attendance for the entire year by giving them 5 points.

Prohibition

FRANK HERBERT PALMER, EDITOR OF EDUCATION.

PROHIBITION is still a question for many of our citizens,—strange as it may seem. It has been enacted. It stands upon the statute books. An effort is being made to enforce it,—with varying degrees of energy and of success or failure, in different localities and circumstances. But the minds of the people are decidedly at variance upon the subject. The powers of evil are working vigorously to befog the thinking of the masses. It is not very difficult to do this. A large number of people have never learned to think public questions through logically, and to base their opinions on solid foundations. Personal liberty is a fine thing provided it is accompanied by a full recognition of the supremacy of the State as a whole. Personal liberty becomes a menace when it is interpreted as a permission to do what one pleases regardless of its effect upon other members of the State. The State has a claim upon the individual, *per se.* For he is, himself, an integral part of the State; and it is a matter of public concern whether he keeps himself physically, mentally and spiritually fit to promote the common welfare; or whether by self-indulgence and self-will and isolation he goes his own way, whether right or wrong, without recognizing his responsibility to his fellow men.

Not long ago we saw a pitiable spectacle on an outgoing railroad train which had just come in through the densely populated suburbs, loaded with people who were hastily debarking, to make room for surging crowds who were waiting behind the gates for the opportunity to board the same train, for their homes. Entering one of the coaches we saw a man endeavoring to arouse a drunken comrade to a point of self-command sufficient to enable him to leave the train. The aisle was full of hurrying men and women seeking to secure seats. The spectacle upon which they were obliged to look was a dreadful one,—humiliating to our common human nature and feelings. The drunken man was helplessly drunk.

One look at his self-degradation would seem to have been enough to determine any intelligent person, young or old, male or female, forever to hate and shun the thing that gets a human being so far below the level of a beast that it is an insult to the latter even to make the comparison. The train crew had to drag him out to the platform and to the ambulance, as a *thing*,—bearing little semblance to a *man*.

Yet, as we turned to our seatmate (a stranger) and said: "I don't know where you stand on the question, but to my mind one such spectacle as that is a conclusive argument against license and in favor of prohibition,"—his reply was: "I can't agree with you; I look upon what we have just witnessed as an example of the *results of prohibition*; if that fellow could have gone to a respectable saloon for his liquor he would not have drunk the stuff he evidently did." And many, many people are hiding behind just such a specious argument as this.

The fact that prohibition does not wholly prohibit, the fact that the craze for alcohol leads some to partake of vile and poisonous substitutes, is constantly dwelt upon by the opponents of prohibition; and the superficial argument is swallowed, wholesale, by the thoughtless crowd who have acquired the dreadful craving for liquor; and by many non-partakers who have not thought deeply into the subject in a broad, benevolent and human way.

Let us take the same position about some other crime,—self-destruction for instance. Why should there be any law against suicide? Does not such a law interfere with individual liberty? And is it not evident that prohibition of suicide is a failure? Men still kill themselves in spite of the fact that it is forbidden by law. Let us then abolish the law prohibiting suicide and issue licenses to those who want to kill themselves, so that they can peacefully do it without breaking the law. Now, they slink off into some lonely place and kill themselves. Don't interfere with their human liberty. Just license them to do it in the open and legally; for they do, and will do it anyway; therefore, to make it illegal is to promote infractions of the law, and suicide. How ridiculous is such an argument where applied to suicide! Is it any less ridiculous in the case of rum drinking?

The fact that a law is violated does not vitiate the validity of that law. In the case of prohibition we are placing the public disapproval on a habit which has caused a very large proportion of all the other crimes and ills which have cursed humanity for many, many generations and ages. We are *branding* a great, crying evil. We are calling it by its right name. We are bringing the common conscience of the race to the fore and demanding that every man shall consider the welfare of his fellow men as supreme when placed over against a mere personal craving or desire. It is a fool's argument to say that prohibition is wrong because it is violated. All laws are violated; shall we then abolish all law, and license anarchy?

It will take time to demonstrate concretely the full and ripe fruits of prohibition. One of the important effects of it is to be found in the new and purified blood of the new generation. Thousands of homes are cleansed of alcohol for the simply reason that it is difficult to get it under prohibition. We say this in spite of the statements of the enemies of prohibition that it is "dead easy" to get it. We are positive that thousands of babies are begotten by sober fathers now, that under license would have had drunken fathers. The results will appear in a decreased hereditary tendency to intoxication. The time element is one that must not be forgotten "The mills of the Gods grind slow, but they grind exceeding fine."

A late number of a Boston daily reports as follows:

"The number of child wards of Massachusetts is lower than it has been in many years, according to the annual report of the Department of Public Welfare. The past two "dry" years have shown a marked decrease from the average number of delinquent, wayward, neglected and dependent children for whom the State had to care under the former "wet" conditions. Boston furnished 215 of this number last year. In 1918 there were 294 from this community and 263 in 1920.

"The total number of children received in custody in the State in the past year was 834. In 1917, 1087 children were State wards. The figures for 1919 were 1073, which, in 1920, dropped, with prohibition's advent, to 845. Of these State wards, in 1917,

174 of those received during the year, were classed as delinquent, 191 in 1918, 190 in 1919, while the latest figures compiled show only ninety-eight delinquent children received during the twelve-month period. Only eight wayward children were received.

"The number of neglected children fell from 432 in 1917 and 452 in 1918, steadily with the advent of prohibition until the forthcoming report will show only 269, a decrease of fifty-three the previous year."

The results of prohibition are manifest to candid students who investigate tenement districts, police courts, jail and prison records, etc. Such investigators do not expect to find these places free from the curse that is wrought by alcohol. They know that the law is still violated, and that vile substitutes for the drinks of a former time are more or less common. But, *on the whole,* real progress has been made. Prisons are not empty but they are a great deal nearer to it than previous to the enactment of the prohibitive law; the atmosphere of the tenement districts is vastly improved; thousands of wives and children have peace and food and clothes and shelter and a happiness incomparably better than previous to the passage of the law and its partially successful enforcement. Time will still further improve all these conditions. The amount of time needed for the approximately full enforcement and favorable results of prohibition depends largely upon the care with which we study, think of, and express ourselves about the matter. It is the duty of every true man and woman of whatever race and station to think deeply and speak advisedly about and act obediently to the law that has been put upon the statute books. This law must and shall be tried thoroughly,—and long enough to establish beyond question its rightness and its indispensability. Teachers can help powerfully in promoting the movement. They can create public sentiment,—dealing as they do with the plastic material of young manhood and womanhood. The future is theirs. Let us forget the follies of the past and make clean and pure and strong and beautiful the age that is to be.

American Notes—Editorial

The National Education Association of 116,000 American teachers, in its Sixtieth Annual Convention, at Boston, declared "its profound faith in the principles of our democracy and in the indispensable character of public education as the vital force in that democracy"; it pledged itself "to the patriotic duty of developing intelligence, honor and loyalty in the lives of American boys and girls." It reasserted the principle that "public education is more than a matter of local or even state concern; that it is in truth a matter of the deepest national concern; and that the nation as a nation has a stake and interest in the welfare and development of every child in the land." It pledged its support to the following principles and policies, and invited good citizens everywhere to join in making them effective throughout the nation:

(1) A sincere, devoted, and unqualified support of Federal aid and Federal recognition of public education, without Federal interference in any way with state and local control, as they are embodied in the Towner-Sterling bill now pending in the 67th Congress.

(2) Adequate school revenues as one of the most pressing and important problems facing the country at this time. "The wealth of the nation is sufficient for all its educational needs. We ask that Congress and the state legislatures recognize the supreme importance of public education and that they set themselves to the task of providing adequate funds for its support. We believe, in order that there may be equality of educational opportunity for all children, that the state should assume a much larger responsibility for the adequate financial support of schools, and that at least one-half of the school revenues should be derived from state income."

(3) A full recognition of the principle that education is a state function, and that local boards of education are in this sense officers of the state, and that they should be free to determine and administer their own financial budgets, subject to general state control but unhampered by municipal authorities.

(4) The duty of teachers everywhere to teach respect for law and order and for constituted authority; the importance of obedience to the Constitution and to all state and national laws and to local ordinances; the obligation to teach the children that the laws are made by the majority and may be changed by the majority, but that they must be obeyed by all, and that he who disobeys the Constitution or laws is an enemy of the republic.

(5) Approval of training in American citizenship, that the principles of this Government, as embodied in the state and national constitutions, may be made an integral part of the training of every student in every school; and that in the interest of true Americanism no person unwilling to submit to these principles be employed in the education of youth.

(6) Unqualified approval of permanent tenure for teachers during efficiency and good behavior, following a reasonable probationary period; of the establishment of permanent, safe, and adequate teachers' retirement funds; of raising educational standards and attracting the finest ability to the teaching profession by an increase in teachers' salaries; and disapproval of a lowering of salary schedules for competent teachers in any part of the country; and to these ends there should be a continued activity of the National Education Association to secure the legislation in various states to bring about these results.

(7) Attention was called to the failure to provide an adequate program of education for the children living in the rural areas of our country, and it was urged that the educational opportunities provided for children in rural America be made equivalent to those offered to children in the most favored urban communities.

(8) It was declared that the city of Washington should take the leadership in matters of school administration, supervision, teaching, business management, and for the development of a sane, well-balanced and progressive educational program in city schools. In a special sense the schools of the capital city belong to the nation.

It was declared that the exclusion of Hawaii and other territories from benefits of Federal appropriations is unjust and indefensible; and that the Legislative Commission of the National Education Association should urge Congress in all acts providing for Federal aid for education to place these territories on the same basis as the states.

Fraternal greetings were sent to all national organizations of teachers in foreign lands, expressing "our desire and readiness to join them in the leadership which shall promote the cause of truth and of international understanding. To this end we commend the work of the Committee on Foreign Education Relations in preparing for a world conference on education in 1923 in connection with this Association."

The reduction of world armaments already accomplished was approved, and the belief expressed "that international peace and good will, brought about by mutual understanding and confidence, will be more speedily realized by education than by any other means. We therefore recommend that revenues released by the reduction of armaments be used in the promotion of education."

Just as far as possible, both parents and teachers should give the children the power of initiative, at home and in school. At first,—and, of course, in some things always,—it is necessary to prescribe duties to be done; but if possible, always let the children think of their duties themselves; and when it is necessary to suggest duties and tasks, don't do more than suggest them, unless circumstances absolutely require it; let the children know about what you expect, show them, if necessary, where to begin, and then leave them to work out the problem largely for themselves, instead of standing over them and half doing it yourself. *After* they have done the given task as best they can (or think they can) *and not before,* go over it again with them, if you please; but do this pleasantly and with appreciation of whatever is good in the work they have done; then set them another similar task, and leave them alone with it. It may require a third, or a fourth trial; but ultimately they will master the problem and will have acquired something that will help them with all their problems, viz., a power to think for themselves, to go ahead with a piece of work, to work things out, to achieve results, to compare these results with an ideal and note the likenesses and the differences; and thus to become really educated. This is real teaching. Too often we busy ourselves in showing the boys and girls how well *we* can do things, rather than in cultivating in them the power to do them.

Let us consider an illustration: Here is a boy who is poor in arithmetic. Probably he has missed a lesson or two because of absence from school on account of sickness, or for some other reason. Find out where and why he is off the track, if you can, and then give him an example or two that you are pretty sure he can do, and leave him to himself for a little; then go back and if possible compliment him on what he has done. That will be wonderfully heartening. Then ask him what he finds difficult to understand. Don't explain his problem,—but just ask him to tackle it again and see if it does not now come clear to him what to do. After a time look in on him and cheerfully inquire how he is coming on. If he is "all balled up," get the point where he went astray and tell him to go back to that point and "carry on" from there and see how he comes out. Let him feel that if he masters that one problem all by himself it will count for a worth-while day. At the close of that day the chances are that you will have proven to his satisfaction that you are a real teacher,—not simply a task-master.

Here is another illustration,—for the home. Your twelve-year-old boy wants to go camping with one or two other boys. Get him one of the small army tents that can be had for a dollar or two; also a

plate, cup and saucer, a knife and fork, a drinking cup, a good thick blanket, a rubber coat, and some fishing tackle,—or better still, let him go to the neighboring city and secure these for himself; advise the parents of the other boys who are to go with him to do likewise. *Then leave them alone.* Let them select their own site for their camp, do all the setting-up work, planning trenches to take care of the water that will fall in the rain storms, gathering firewood and building rock fireplaces, rigging kettle-cranes, making sleeping arrangements, distributing duties and tasks of the camp fairly among the campers, determining watches and other camp duties intelligently, and using forethought about days of storm and times of heat, etc., etc. If it pours all the next night, don't worry; and don't visit them. Let them visit you, if and when they want to. Let them feel that they are responsible. They will not abuse this trust. They will grow manly under it. If you interfere, and dictate and worry and fuss and instruct, you will spoil the game. Give them initiative, and you will prove yourself a good "governor" and a wise teacher. The "kids" will come through all right, and you will be surprised to note their increasing trustworthiness and ability to take care of themselves.

The educational press has been asked by the National Association of Book Publishers to publish the following "Note":—

"In the effort to diversify beyond a single basic volume the text matter available for students in certain college courses, and to avoid expense to the student in so doing, many professors have tried multigraphing for class distribution, paragraphs, pages or chapters from other text books, without apparently realizing that by so doing they were invading legal property rights covered by our copyright laws and doing grave wrong to authors and publishers who had written or printed the books from which the material is taken.

This practice has so grown with the perfecting of reproducing machines that it has become a real menace to new authorship, editorial initiative and publishing enterprise.

Some have done this without realizing that copyright laws give to the authors or proprietors sole privilege to extend rights to "copy" as well as to print such material. Others have assumed rights to reprint, though their experience with books has told them it could not be done without written permission from the holder of the copyright. It ought to be realized by all that copyright control is not granted to authors and publishers for the sole purpose of their selfish aggrandisement, but to encourage research, authorship, and publishing initiative and investment."

Book Reviews

So many books are sent to this department of EDUCATION that it is impossible to review them all. Naturally we feel under obligation to give preference to the books of those publishing houses which more or less frequently use our advertising pages. Outside of the limitations thus set, we shall usually be able and glad to mention by title, authors, and publishers, such books as are sent to us for this purpose. More elaborate notices will necessarily be conditional upon our convenience and the character of the books themselves.

FAMOUS STORIES BY FAMOUS AUTHORS. For Junior High School Reading. Selected and edited by Norma Helen Deming, Principal of Horace Mann School, Minneapolis, and Katherine Isabel Bemis, Department of English, Franklin Junior High School, Minneapolis, Minn. The Atlantic Monthly Press.

These are all choice stories, with real literary value and an appeal to boys and girls of adolescent age. They meet a need that has been distinctly felt by thoughtful parents and teachers. They point to a way of escape from the objectionable books and sensational papers and magazines which assail the young people on every hand and reach out with impure and evil intent to mislead and corrupt both taste and character. They furnish the wholesome excitements of adventure and achievement, appealing to one's sense of humor, and stimulating the desire to do deeds of honor and service which will be of real worth to others. This volume may well receive "adoptions" in the schools; it is also a safe and sure choice as a gift book at the holiday season for a red-blooded boy or romance-loving girl in the "teens."

FIRST LESSONS IN SPEECH IMPROVEMENT. By Anna I. Birmingham and George Philip Krap. Charles Scribner's Sons. Price 88 cents.

Speech improvement has come into the school program to stay. The physical basis of speech is just as capable of development along right lines as is the physical basis of the written expression of thought by handwriting. The scientific principles underlying correct speech have been discovered and they are being applied in the schools as a necessary part of the process of education. All teachers and parents should become familiar with the subject and there is no better book, we believe, by which to achieve that desirable end, than this one. It is designed for use in the later years of the elementary school, and will be especially helpful to foreigners who are seeking to acquire the English language.

A TREASURY OF ESKIMO TALES. By Clara K. Bayliss. Illustrated in color by George Carlson. T. Y. Crowell Company. Price 75 cents, net.

Every young person, of whatever physical age, is allured by the very word "Eskimo," and on hearing it sees visions and dreams dreams. In the far North, ice-bound, with their sealskin and fishskin clothing, and their reindeer, bear, whale and walrus meat, and their faithful dogs, these people work, hunt, fish, and dream their dreams of a better land beyond the grave. This book relates many of their traditions and legends. It has an atmosphere all its own, and will be a welcome addition to the schoolroom and to the family sitting-room. Boys and girls will not get sleepy where these stories are being read.

OUR OLD WORLD BACKGROUND. By Charles A. Beard and William C. Bagley. The Macmillan Company.

Three books, of which this is the third, constitute a series of most attractive and valuable volumes on American history for the grades. These are: A First Book in American History, The History of the American People, and the present volume. Each may be used independently of the others, yet there is a bond of unity that makes them one in their intent and mission. They are admirably arranged and cover the essential points of our country's history. The paragraphing plan adopted aids the student in memorizing. There are numerous maps and attractive illustrations.

LA SCIENCE DE L'EDUCATION. Par le Dr. Jean Demoor et Tobie Jonckheere, de l'Universite de Bruxelles. Second edition. Bruxelles, Maurice Lamertine; Paris, Librairie Felix Alcan

Students of Education will find in this volume abundant material for study; and if familiar with the French language they will gain much from a comparison of the development of ideas upon this great human interest in another country with that which has taken place, and is taking place, in their own This is an age in which we need to view things from the world standpoint. Thinking men will be found to be in substantial agreement in main outlines, however they may differ in minor details. The authors of this profound and subtle study have put the scholars of the world in their debt for their painstaking development of the history of the greatest of human interests,—the education of the peoples of the world.

AMERICA FACES THE FUTURE. By Durant Drake, Professor of Philosophy at Vassar College. The Macmillan Company. Price $2.50.

A virile book, that commends itself to those who believe in the destiny of America, and who think that it is of more value to face the future with a determination to live wisely, helpfully, nobly in that future than it is to sit down in a self-satisfied mood, content with the glories of the past. Here are a few "appetizing" chapter headings: Civil Liberty, Individualism, Free Speech, Law and order, Racial equality, Education for all, The Square deal, Political honesty, Democracy in industry, Big business, Collective bargaining, America first, Hands across the sea, Americanization, Faith in America. These chapters are splendid essays and deserve a very wide reading by thoughtful Americans.

We regret the lack of space to review, individually, the following books received from the publishers. Their merits are many; their faults, if any, are few:—

Burrough's Nature Near Home, and other papers. Houghton, Mifflin Company, in the Riverside Literature Series. *Mills' Being Good to Bears.* Same publishers and same series.

Cambridge Geographical Text Books; Junior. By A. R. Chart-Lee, M.Sc. One of a series of three geographical text books for secondary schools or older pupils in elementary schools. Cambridge University Press, through The Macmillan Company.

Community English. A book of Undertakings for Boys and Girls. By Mildred Buchanan Flag. The Macmillan Company.

An Elementary Manual of Physiology. For Colleges, Schools of Nursing, etc. By Russell Burton-Opitz (Columbia University). Illustrated. W. B. Saunders Company, Philadelphia. Price $2.50 net.

Scientific Determination of the Content of the Elementary School Course in Reading. By Willis Lemon Uhl. University of Wisconsin Studies in the Social Sciences and History, No. 4. Paper covers.

Viewpoints in Biography. An arrangement of books according to their essential interest. By Katherine Tappert, Librarian, New York Evening Post. Chicago, The American Library Association. Paper covers.

Handbook of Lessons in Physical Training and Games. Book 2, for third and fourth grades; Book 3, for fifth to eighth grades. Joseph J. McVey, publisher, Philadelphia, Pa.

Standard Usage in English. Standards of capitalization, punctuation, handwriting, spelling, and sentence structure required of all classes in the University High School. University of Chicago Press.

Japan of Today. Introduction. Carrie G. Ainsworth. Lakeside Series, No. 167. Ainsworth & Company.

New Spelling Notebook. The Up-to-Date. Published by Music Memory Game Company, 7551 Saginaw Ave., Chicago. The aim of this new note book is to aid both teacher and student in gaining knowledge, saving time in correcting, and thus increasing the efficiency of the work in this important matter of spelling. A free sample copy may be had, on application to the above address, by any instructor or school administrator.

EVERYDAY CLASSICS FIRST READER. By Fannie W. Dunn, Franklin T. Baker, and Ashley H. Thorndike. Illustrations by Maud and Miska Petersham. The Macmillan Company.

Emphasis is laid, in this book, on the increase of the child's vocabulary. By means of the interest of the story, and by the frequent repetition of new words, the latter are fixed in mind and their meanings are acquired. The numerous illustrations in color are particularly attractive.

THE EARTH AND ITS LIFE. By A. Waddington Seers. World Book Company. Price $1.20.

This volume gives the facts concerning our planet, its origin in the course of evolution, the coming of man and his struggles against the animal world and his conquests of the earth. Various allied sciences are brought into view and the story is told in a manner that will engage the reader's interest and develop a scientific habit of mind.

THE ART OF THINKING. By T. Sharper Knowlson. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. Price $1.35 net.

A helpful little "self-culture" volume, which should have a wide reading.

POEMÉS CHOISIS. Edited by J. L. Andre Barbier, Professor of French Language and Literature in the University College of Wales. Longmans, Green & Co. Price $1.35. It belongs to the Modern Language Texts, French Series.

YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR. By Louis P. Benezet, Superintendent of Schools, Evansville, Indiana. The Macmillan Company.

This book should serve a valuable purpose, both within and outside of the schools. It gives an interesting, clear, accurate, and soul-stirring account of the great World War, from beginning to end,—and should make us all hate war and determine that there shall never be another, so help us, God! No person is properly educated or Americanized who does not know in some fairly clear and comprehensive way the things that are described in this comprehensive story. There are many excellent illustrations.

HELLENIC HISTORY. By George Willis Botsford. The Macmillan Company.

This is a splendid volume of over five hundred pages, with many illustrations. Its purpose is to show the evolution of civilization as exemplified by and emanating from Greece, in which, the author claims, "the state was the highest embodiment of social and cultural life." The book is intended to serve as a text book for college courses in Greek history.

DAVID CROCKETT. By Jane Corby. Barse & Hopkins. $1.00.

This is one of a series of books for young people, called the "Famous Americans" series. The present volume is an interesting account of the life and adventures of a boy who was born in East Tennessee and who became a pioneer in early life in Virginia, and later in Texas, where he helped that state by brave acts and courage, in the war with Mexican bands, to achieve independence. There is good stuff in the volume that will interest and benefit young Americans to fight well the many modern enemies of present-day civilization.

POEMS OF HEROISM IN AMERICAN LIFE. Edited by John R. Howard. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. Price $1.75 net.

This attractive volume of 360 pages presents a new approach to the subject of American history. It gives us concrete instances and shows the spirit of the great characters who have *made* history in this country. The selections include some of the best poems that grew out of the deep and strong currents of thought and feeling during the World War. One of the finest, in our estimation, is that on "Theodore Roosevelt," written by Leon Huhner and originally published in the New York Times.

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Religion in Education

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"Knowledge is power, but not virtue. It may be the servant of good, but it may also be the servant of evil."—*Seymour.*

EXPERIENCE proves that knowledge does not insure good, moral conduct, and history is full of instances which show that it takes an educated mind to make a clever rascal. Man, to be a real asset to society and of true benefit to himself must not only be well versed in our modern intellectualism, but he must also be inherently good, with a goodness which has imbued him from the crown of his head to the soles of his feet. No rational man would construct a power plant and fail to provide a governor to regulate the direction and impulses of his applied force. Neither is it safe nor sane to develop a high tension in the human dynamo and permit this to run ungoverned. Now, the moral gyroscope of the human being is conscience, the judge of individual human life, who sorts out the raw material gathered by the mind, classifies it into good and bad categories, and brings its emphatic influence to bear towards the good and away from the bad. Wherefore this governor of human forces needs a place

in our educative scheme, and only one method permits effective development of conscience—that is religion.

I realize fully how provocative of argument is the subject of religion at all times and, above all, when carried into the field of education. Few subjects today are so fertile of discussion, or lead to more acrid display of temper than the tenets of the Christian Church; while in the past, under the name of Christianity, men have committed atrocities which not even the plea of misguided zeal can excuse, much less justify. Some of the greatest intellectual lights have cudgeled their brains over this profound element in which man's deepest interests are involved and have sought in vain for a rational comprehension of its greatest truths; yet this involved problem is very often glibly solved—to his own satisfaction, at least—by any man who has sufficient acumen to whittle a stick.

It is unnecessary to enter at length into the historical or dogmatical phase of the question. Some see in the Christian religion an evolution; others view it as a spontaneous reaction to unnatural conditions that had brought mankind to a depth of depravity which was so low and demoralized that it could sink no lower, and, hence, here too, according to the proverb, "When things are at their worst a change for the better must come." No matter what origin may be attributed to religion, one thing is beyond dispute, namely, today entirely too many men, to judge by their practical attitude at least, consider religion a "pretty good thing to let alone." To some, who can see no deeper than the surface display, religion is only a form of ceremonies (which in reality are only the dramatization of the deeper truths), and since these rash critics see only the *letter* which killeth, the *spirit* which quickeneth and giveth life is lost to their mentality. Nor need we wonder that to their minds religion becomes a superficial mummery, a meaningless external manœvre.

I do not propose to particularize or specialize concerning the details of the varied symbolism which characterizes man's method of expressing his religious tenets and beliefs, beyond

the statement that all nations and races who clung to some idea of a supreme being saw fit, from time immemorial, to set aside certain actions which were deemed sacred and an appropriate expression of the homage and tribute due to the deity. These ceremonies were looked upon as holy and, therefore, exclusively devoted to the sacred rites; and so firmly have these functions been connected with what is convceived as holy, that formerly to exercise them in superficial mockery, branded the scoffer as guilty of blasphemy against the deity and in most instances he became an outcast from society and the state. But, as stated above, this observation is just *en passant*, and its only object can be to impress upon the scoffer, whose surface criticism has led him into a snap judgment, that his attitude is at variance with the established practices of mankind so universally followed that there is force to the argument which holds that religious ceremonials are an outgrowth of a faith which is instinctively rooted in human nature.

At all times, thinking men, who realized the importance of making men not only brainy and strong but also good, have emphasized the importance of religion in achieving this desirable end. Today, more than ever before, does this view stand out as an accepted fact. In a word, deep, soul-saturating defects in morality are considered the saproot of the vast majority of ills wherewith mankind is afflicted and a return to the rectifying principles of religion is pointed out as the only radical panacea. Nor is this merely the preachment of the ministers of the gospel, who may be suspected of entertaining selfish motives in promoting their uncompromising attitude upon this question. Men of high financial and industrial attainments, who may be depended upon to suggest a practical solution of the ills which have infected those social phases in which they have specialized and through which they have become eminent, are entering the arena to champion the cause of religious training as a remedial measure for the evils indicated. The late Chief Justice White, Taft, Bryan, Wilson, Rockefeller, Jr., and Schwab, are only a few of the multitude who advocate a religious

training as an adequate measure whereby order may be born out of the industrial and social chaos which threatens the whole social fabric. Last, but not least, permit me to mention Babson, whose position has well enabled him to study industrial diseases and to feel the pulse of the weakening patient. And Babson is very pronounced in his conclusion that the radical defect of industrial ills lies in the lack of moral perceptions and religious ideals in the hearts and minds of the children of men. Very logically he deducts that the instilling of religious convictions is the only basic cure, for we cannot have morality without religion, any more than we can have a lily without the soil.

Although the necessity of religious training to make men better is largely conceded, when the best methods to attain this purpose are sought, we encounter a conflict of opinions which is staggering in its intensity. Honesty of convictions, jealousy, envy, pride, predjudice, and headless emotionalism, all conspire to array the warring factions into hostile camps which checkmate the honest efforts of each other. Especially is this verified when religion is suggested as a part of the curriculum in our schools. The result is that moral disaster follows and the best that is in man becomes stunted and cannot live. Men should try to lift themselves above sectarian formalities, throw the thin stratifications of factionalism aside, and learn whether beneath it all there cannot be found, in this involved question, certain bed rock truths, upon which all who believe in a God may stand, and from which each unit, fighting in its own sector, may assist in doing its part in presenting a solid front against the evils which today are sweeping mankind to destruction.

The question now arises: Can a religious standard be found which will appeal to all deists, and which, if adopted, will make men's actual lives uniformly moral and good? I will answer with an emphatic "Yes!" The religious standard which embodies these requirements is the ten commandments, for no man who keeps the decalogue can fail to be moral, and surely no

rightly thinking man can find a substantial objection against them, when they assure such results.

I am not speaking of that ingrown deception wherewith people today play at observance of the commandments. I do not mean the outward obedience to God's law in the letter, but rather to the keeping of the *spirit* of the decalogue, for it is this spirit alone which will give man a soul-saturating religion.

A close scrutiny of these laws reveals that they regulate man's whole life and its activities to the minutest detail. This becomes clear once we divide these ten injunctions into three divisions which are naturally suggested by the classified subjects to which they point. Thus we see that the first three draw attention to the obligations we owe to God as the Supreme Being; the following five mainly regulate our relations to our fellowmen; but the most vital, from an individualistic point of view, are the two last, for there the strictures of God strike at the very taproot of all immorality. This becomes clearer when we study the matter with a deeper attention. No matter what a man does or says, ordinarily, he must conceive the thing in his mind, before he acts or speaks. Wherefore our psychic factors and external activity hold the relation of antecedent and consequent casue and effect. Hence our mental, or psychic self is, so to speak, the fountain spring of our conduct. From this it follows that if we will keep this mind and its co-operating psychic functions clean and unpolluted our outward manifestations must be morally wholesome and pellucid. And it is precisely in the two last commandments* that God drives down His inhibition into the very source of our lives when He tells us there that we must not *wilfully* think or desire the things which are outlawed by all rightly constituted consciences. But here above all else must our individual good will come into play, for no law or official force from without can institute a house-cleaning there. This becomes the personal task of every individual, each setting his

* Some denominations read as one commandment what I designate as two.

own house in order, and of his own free will accepting the decalogue as the proper standard of moral living.

A penetrating, all-embracing understanding of the spirit of the decalogue must become an essential feature of our educational endeavors, and we must, by persistent instruction, enable each pupil to perceive its moral value so clearly that he will voluntarily adopt it as his life guide. Thus he will have before him the route of moral safety, which will assure an anchorage when the winds of temptation blow, and his conscience, his balance wheel, or, if you will, his pilot, will keep a steady course, as his frail bark steers its passage over life's tempestuous sea.

Knowledge in itself, being a power and not a virtue, will never accomplish this; the soul-saturating determination to do right, which resolution is rooted in the firm will to observe the *spirit* of the decalogue, alone can hope to achieve this desirable state. Depriving people of the opportunity to do evil by removing the means of immorality will not help much unless a change of heart is effected at the same time. Prisoners are striking examples of how little is attained by putting the chance to do evil beyond their reach. Not even the most enthusiastic would pronounce them ideal men. One man is honest because he fears punishment, another because he wills to be so. The first needs only a chance and he is upon his sinful way, the latter may have the chance but it is meaningless to him. Our choice between these two should not be difficult.

But learning and knowledge will not give us the more desirable man. An array of actual experiences puts this beyond all dispute. Something more is required, and this is the stabilizing power of religion. Wherefore the inculcation of the ten commandments into the plastic soul of the youth and the saturation of the entire man with their inhibition becomes imperative. The world is full of undesirables, who observe a certain outward code of ethics, but who feel justified in defying the laws of God and man when the escape from just retribution seems assured. What we need are true men, who have certain unshakable convictions which they hold as invariable standards of conduct and

to which they cling, not only beneath the critical eye of an observant public, but also when they are alone and unobserved with no one to applaud their steadfastness in virtue, nor to censure them if they yield to dishonesty which will enrich them, nor when they give way to the promptings of some other outlawed longing or desire. This is the test of true manhood; this alone will assure civic, moral, and social stability. This persistent attitude requires more inherent courage than to be mighty upon the field of battle, where only too often many hearts, inherently craven, become steeled at the thought of the coward's brand. But this individual and personal, outward and inward, public and private stability is purchased by a thoroughgoing knowledge of the spirit of the decalogue, conjoined by an unwavering determination to adhere to its principles every day of our life. And since this very attitude is the essential feature of a practical religious and moral life, we arrive once more where we started from: Religion is essential in practical life and so it must find a pronounced place in educational development.

When we consider that there is no other basis upon which to stand to instill morality; and when we furthermore realize that a man is moral when he keeps the commandments and that he is immoral when he violatees them, we obtain another view which confirms the argument of this treatise.

From the above, one great fact is apparent: in our teaching faculty we must preforce reverse our present custom of gauging a man's fitness for pedagogy by his degree of atheistic belief and practices. The man who in "the pride of his heart" destroys God, destroys the force of His law, renders it meaningless and makes it a myth. There are two things to be truly feared: one is God whom we must fear to offend: the other is the man who does not fear to offend Him. And the more intellectual the latter is the more wary should we be, for he is a capricious force, a hurricane, just as ungoverned and just as destructive. If to instill religious precepts into the coming man; if the demand that educators be acquainted with and know how to impinge upon the pupil those factors which make for the higher

and better things of life, is too far reaching, then let us not murmur or rave when we reap with regret what we have sown in folly.

The world today is in political and industrial chaos. Quarrels, contentions, hatred, brother tearing at the throat of brother, savage beasts in deadlock, is the deplorable spectacle which characterizes the history of humanity today. Approach the subject with an open mind and lay aside all preconceived ideas, delve down and unearth the root of all our difficulties; ask honestly what causes capital and labor, right and left hand of advancement and progress, to assume the attitude of mutual retaliation; what prompts man to scheme so that by taking advantage of legalized infamy or ignorance he deprives his fellowmen of what is rightfully his; what is the inherent cause urging the vilest creature on earth, the assassin of character, to rob others of their good name; what induces unfaithfulness among espoused couples; why does the thief carry on his noxious practices? Is it the lack of knowledge and learning? Indeed not, for some of our brainiest and best educated men are our cleverest, unpunished rascals. Is it due to lack of science? By no means! Due to scientific inventions, crimes are committed today which twenty-five years ago were impossible. No; the root is deeper down, and our evils, whether international or national, local or personal, spring from our failure to heed Christ's injunction: "If you love me keep my commandments." And the decalogue in turn is only a detailed exposition, a ten-fold blossom which burgeons upon a common soil which again was pointed out by our Divine Master when He laid down the Golden Rule: "As you would that men should do unto you, do you also to them in like manner." A thorough mastication of this rule, its spirit I mean, will shed a halo of wisdom upon the entire turbulent atmosphere wherewith the world is cursed at this moment. Futhermore, in this law alone is to be found a cure for the aches and evils which are festering in our private lives or social organizations. I do not want any one to rob me, either by legal trickery or the infamous cunning of financial jugglery.

I do not want any one to filch my purse, nor to steal my good name. I do not want any one to harbor ill will towards me, nor to think evil of me in his heart. If I tender a man my service I expect a commensurate reward for my labor. If I hire a man I shall look for an honest day's work and resent soldiering while he is on duty. Very well. "Do you also to them in like manner." No matter how the situation is viewed, whether from an individual or social point of vantage, no evil is rampant which a whole-hearted observance of the Golden Rule will not destroy root and branch.

During a recent journey the writer was witness to an animated and vociferous discussion between two gentlemen. The topic of their conversation was religion in its basic form. One stoutly maintained that the only efficient form, for a practical religious life, is the Golden Rule. The other dogmatically insisted that this standard is insufficient, and held out for the more comprehensive, twofold law of the "love of God and the love of our neighbor" as the "one, infallible guide to the recititude of a religious life." The earnestness wherewith each espoused his respective view put their sincerity beyond all doubt.

It seemed strange that these zealous advocates should fail to see that their opinions were radically identical. Both laws came from the same consistent source, the Master, no contradiction is involved because the second view is only an elaboration of the first. Hence both laws essentially harmonize and interlock. Furthermore the decalogue is a fuller and more practical explanation of the contents of both the laws which aroused the difference of opinion referred to above. The following comparison will, I think, clarify some of the hazy conceptions which seem to befog the minds of earnest, but somewhat turbid thinkers.

When a man purposes to erect a dwelling he excavates to obtain a firm footing in the earth. He then constructs a solid foundation. This in turn serves to carry the super-structure. Each of these must have that solidity and perfection, which its intended use or security would suggest. Nor should there be any argument among sensible men regarding the relative firm-

ness of any of these structural elements. Defect in one endangers the utility of all.

The man who inhabits the house derives benefit from the solidity of the lower construction; he is sheltered against climatic adversity as long as he abides within the walls of the building. When he abandons the premises and goes out, he forsakes the safety and shelter of all three factors of the structure.

A little thought will point out the comparison which the writer has in mind. The Golden Rule is the nethermost footing. The twofold law of the love of God and the love of our neighbor constitutes the foundation, while the decalogue is the super-structure—the walls which protect against the adverse winds of temptation; against the repacity of omnivorous passions; and against the treacherous enticements of outlawed allurements.

He who yields to any of these in sinful pursuits, in serious manner, has stepped off of the spiritual premises entirely and so he abandons the solidity and safety of all the God-given laws.

Manifestly there is a logical co-ordination in the Divine legislation which enacted the three sets of laws indicated above: one group rests upon the other; the last is a development of the preceding, and to dislodge one, to say the least, endangers and makes insecure the rest. With this view fixed we find a halo of understanding bathing the sweeping statement of the inspired writer who says in substance: "he that transgresses in one law is guilty of them all."

But, to repeat, even at the risk of being monotonous, the decalogue is only an itemized and detailed explanation whereby the comprehensive law of the love of God and our neighbor and the Golden Rule are laid bare in their component parts. Very logically then, he who keeps the spirit of the decalogue stands four square upon all of God's enactments including the justly emphasized Golden Rule, the one cure-all of our many industrial ills and social ulcers.

Obviously the full length and depth of these ten laws should be thoroughly understood, and by showing the advantages gained by their observance, a *free will* determination to adopt them as

standards of individual conduct should be instilled. Let us not forget that society can be made better by making its component elements better. But I say again, I cannot say it too often, that the spirit of the law must be assimilated by every individual and of his own volition; otherwise we shall witness the hypocritical observance of the letter which killeth, while the spirit which "giveth life" is wholly if not positively spurned.

Concerning religion, there is entirely too much cant in the world; too many shams and fakirs, who brand themselves the princes of fools by indulging in self-deception and seem to be proud of it. No matter how vociferously a man professes his belief in Christ, nor with what pride he parades his deaconate in some church, if in his practical life he does not live up to the dictates of the commandments he is a bad man. When a man boasts of his love for his country and his flag, and in his practical life is proved guilty of high treason, every sensible person would be justified to conclude that his bombast is only "tinkling cymbals and sounding brass."

Furthermore, a searching inquiry into the principles of the decalogue will reveal that they are a true exposition of those mute but inexorable laws to which nature exacts obedience if true normal, social, and individual welfare is desired. God is merciful and forgives the repentant transgressor. Nature, however, is merciless and sooner or later exacts her price for her violated laws. "Thou shalt not steal." What follows if this prohibition is disregarded? The purloiner has broken down within his better self, he is less perfect than before the theft, and so he has lost in personal solidity. Again, since he is a social unit, society has been injured by him in its solidarity and stability. Nor is there any other anti-decalogue excess in which an indiviual may indulge, without paying the penalty in person and cursing society with his malediction. Wherefore they who cry out against the strictures of the law as invading their "personal liberty" should realize instead a sense of gratitude because God by His enactments protects them against their own folly.

Very often we meet the objection, that the commandments have existed for untold generations but their effect has been nil;

wherefore "their value is, to say the least, questionable." Let us try to see the fallacy of this objection by a comparison. Suppose you are sick, and your doctor assures you, "Take this medicine and it will cure you." Suppose this medicine is disagreeable to the taste and therefore you either take no medicine at all, or concoct a compound which looks like the original but contains none of its curative ingredients; and suppose, furthermore, that you linger on in your illness. Whom in all reason will you blame—the untouched medicine, or your stubborn attitude? It should not be difficult to draw a parallel to the objection above.

The evils of the world are radical and demand drastic remedies, and these remedies must be applied where the ailments are lodged—in the hearts of men. Knowledge, even of good principles, does not essentially make men better, because it does not guarantee moral conduct. Religion, by which I mean free will espousal of the spirit of the decalogue as the standard of conduct, is the sole means to re-enforce the inherent man, who alone is morally safe, for whether by himself or with others he has the stabilizing ballast of unshakable convictions, which permit him to stand upright and face the blast of temptation and come forth unscathed from the ordeal.

Wherefore, to make men learned is necessary; to make them good is essential; neither should be neglected; both should be assured. It follows, then, that we should adopt those means which will guarantee this twofold desirable end. But to attain the latter purpose requires religion, with its life-giving principles directing human activity towards right conduct. Nor is it too exacting to say that this reconstructive and rectifying spirit of morality cannot be instilled too soon into human hearts, and that it must be imbued during the formative period of youthful development by education. Hence the decalogue should be embodied in our educational curriculum because "Teach the child the way he should go in his youth, and in his age he will not depart therefrom" is very generally proved to be true by history and verified by daily observation.

Elementary Industrial Arts

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A VAST body of subject matter with which all men and women of true culture should be familiar is being collected, organized and crystallized into a new school study. What the study is called makes little difference. We choose to call it industrial arts. Industrial arts as a school subject has been defined as the distilled experience of man in his resolution of natural materials to his needs for creature comfort, to the end that he may more richly live his spiritual life.* This definition provides for a subject which will deal primarily with the industries, a study of industry from the social side as well as from the material side, a cultural study of industry with the emphasis upon the how and why of industrial operations combined with a real appreciation of industrial life.

This point of view accepted, we shall see that for the purpose of organization most of the drawing and construction work done in schools will fall to the subject of industrial arts, not because it is a *manual subject*, but rather because it is an *industrial subject*, and because industry deals with drawing and construction more than do history or geography or arithmetic. As phases of school life, drawing and construction are at the disposal of all school studies, but the time has gone by when drawing and manual training should be regarded as isolated subjects in the elementary curriculum. Either is but a part of a subject which it is intended to clarify and intensify.

There is no race, no political division, no literature, no his-

* Frederick G. Bonser in "Some Fundamental Values in Industrial Education."

tory, no science which is not intimately associated with the very topics about which the industrial arts course is organized. This means that industrial arts as a subject is continually at the disposal of all the other subjects. It is important that it be controlled by certain points of emphasis in order that systematic instruction may be realized.

The subject-matter of industrial arts should be chosen from the industries most important to man, the products of which might be arranged in groups classified under the following heads which name the needs satisfied:

1. Food; 2. Clothing; 3. Shelter; 4. Records, including sculpture and painting; 5. Utensils; 6. Tools and Machines; 7. Light, Heat and Power.

Food will include the industries engaged in the transformation of cereals, fruits, vegetables, milk, meat, eggs and fish; *clothing*, the industries engaged in the transformation of wool, cotton, linen, silk, leather; *shelter*, the industries engaged in the transformation of wood, stone, metals, clay, cement to meet man's needs for homes and public buildings (this topic includes architecture); *records*, the industries engaged in the transformation of wood, leather, metal, textile materials and pigments to meet man's needs for books and printed products, and for works of sculpture and painting (this topic includes all objects in which the art element is isolated and whose function is aesthetic, primarily); *utensils*, the industries engaged in the transformation of metals and of non-metallic earth materials to meet man's needs for receptacles for liquids and solid materials used for the most part for domestic purposes; *tools and machines*, the industries engaged in the production of implements used in manual labor, and for more complicated mechanical devices called machines; and *light, heat and power*, the industries engaged in the transformation of natural materials and natural forces for the production of these commodities.

The industry once chosen, the class is put to work investigating it, collecting information from all possible sources. Much will be obtained through actual contact with those engaged in it or

who handle its product. Some facts will be gleaned from supplementary readers and from reference books. The topics to be considered will depend upon the information available and the ability of the class. The following suggestions will be helpful to the teacher who desires to know what may constitute subject matter: (1) The value of the industry to man; how we are affected by it. (2) The evolution of the industry, its story, its heroes of invention (history). (3) Characteristics of the product; what constitutes excellence. (4) Materials employed, where they come from (geography). (5) Processes involved. (6) Tools used. (7) Healthfulness (hygiene). (8) Hours and Wages. (9) The training of the workers. (10) The part played in the industry by the various school subjects. (11) The part played by drawing and design. (12) References to the industry found in literature. (13) The industry as depicted in art.

The subject-matter of industrial arts will include such principles of art as are involved continually in each industry as it is taken up. Masterpieces in painting and sculpture considered as records made by man at various times and under varying conditions, will be treated from the aesthetic side, primarily. Art instruction will be amply provided and yet art will not be treated as it has sometimes been in the past, as an end in itself.

Certain points of emphasis in art education* are today accepted by teachers as reasonable and vital. These may be summarized as follows: (The figure in each case refers to the corresponding grade number, i. e., 1 to grade one, 2 to grade two, etc. Instruction is considered under the headings, Form, Color, Arrangement, Lettering and Construction. The points of emphasis are assigned to the grades as indicated).

Form, Representation: 1. Imaginative Drawing, (free expression of ideas suggested by the imagination). 2. Illustrative drawing, (stories and facts illustrated. Somewhat directed).

* These points of emphasis are adapted from Henry T. Bailey's "Art Education."

3. The silhouette (height and width.) 4. Third dimension (height, width, thickness). 5. Fore-shortening (apparent narrowing from the front to back). 6. Convergence (apparent coming together of receding lines).

Color, Reflected Light: 1. Typical hues identified and their names learned in order: red, yellow, green, blue, purple. 2. Intermediate hues identified and their names included in the list of color names; red, yellow-red (orange), yellow, green-yellow, green, blue-green, blue, purple-blue, purple, red-purple. 3. Values of color (light and dark). 4. Chromas of color (weak and strong). 5. Complementary colors (producing gray) as red and blue-green, yellow and purple-blue, green and red-purple, blue and yellow-red, purple and green-yellow. 6. Balance of color, attractions.

Arrangement, Design: 1. Order (purposeful arrangement). 2. Rhythm (accented repetition). 3. Balance (Symmetrical and free). 4. Space division (divided by vertical and horizontal lines). 5. Variety (variation in motifs). 6. Adaptation (fitted to purpose and material).

Lettering, Letters and Numerals: 1. Capitals cut from squared paper, dictation. 2. Single line capitals drawn freehand from dictation. 3. Single line capitals drawn or cut independent of dictation. 4. Bold face capitals drawn or cut. 5. As in grade 4 or bold face capitals and lower case letters .drawn. 6. Bold face capitals and lower case letters drawn in ink.

Construction, Planning and Making: 1. The one inch measurement, the meaning of vertical. 2. The one half inch measurement, the meaning of horizontal. 3. The one fourth inch measurement, the meaning of diagonal. 4. The one eighth inch measurement, the meaning of parallel. Patterns. 5. Dimensioned views of objects. 6. Simple working drawings, projected views.

Handwork, based upon the subject-matter studied, is of two kinds: (1) *Drawing*, including color, representation and design, and (2) *Construction*, including the preparation and combination of materials.

All projects are to be considered as means of expressing ideas and feelings gotten from a study of the activities and not merely as pieces of handwork to go along with the various studies Handwork should always result from a definite purpose calling for it.

As a school subject industrial arts has two functions to perform. *First*, it will serve the purpose of industrial appreciation by furnishing a foundation of general intelligence which has the two-fold object of providing pupils with sufficient industrial education to meet their needs as children, and of leading up to more advanced differentiated courses in the secondary school; *second*, it will serve the purpose of a unifying agent in the curriculum by furnishing a motive for much of the other school work which in turn it will clarify.

The work described in this paper should be adaptable to school conditions everywhere. In communities where little freedom is allowed, the regular course can at least utilize the materials of industry and its practical activities. Where considerable freedom is allowed, the teacher will be able to employ the following or similar constructive plan.

1. The drawing period will be made over into a combined industry-drawing-construction period, the full time being given to the subject of industrial arts.

2. Drawing and art work, including representation, color, and design, lettering and construction will become a part of all school subjects as occasion demands.

3. Construction or the combining of materials will become a part of all school subjects as occasion demands.

4. The industrial arts period will be given over (a) to sujectmatter including industrial motivation and (b) to manipulation for the sake of making clear the subject-matter, the same to take the form of representation, design, color, lettering and construction or the combining of materials.

5. The industries to be taken up during a definite period of time will be listed.

6. From this list the industry to be studied will be chosen.

7. Instruction in this industry will be provided. It may well be made the subject of study *in each of the six grades during the same period of time.*

8. The second industry to be studied is considered, then another and another until the full year's work is planned.

It is suggested that at the outset all six grades pursue the study of the same industry at the same time. The ideal conception of a course of study would be where the entire school system is operated on a plan of perfect articulation of the various subjects, ample use being made of the project method of instruction. In such a school system subject-matter would be adequately provided in the other studies. The mission of industrial arts in such a system would be primarily the providing of illustrative handwork.

Today, just fifty years after the establishment of drawing courses in Massachusetts and forty-two years after the introduction of manual training in New York, we are beginning effectively to organize this hand work by combining manual training and drawing to form a unit controlled largely by an industrial subject-matter. One used to hear a great deal about the value of nature drawing, object drawing, illustration and construction in the school course much as if they were subjects or at least ends in themselves. Now handwork is considered as a means to an end, as a help in putting across a body of experience of real educational worth.

Drawing and manual training have indeed in our day had a re-birth in industrial arts, for both have gained distinction in the eyes of school men who are able to see in industrial arts much that they failed to recognize in either drawing or manual training heretofore. Industrial art is bringing more art and more industry into education than was ever provided in the past by courses in drawing and manual training as such.

There must still be nature drawing, but it will have a purpose; there must still be object drawing but it will be made significant; there will be illustration—illustration filled with meaning and

with purpose; there must still be construction, more of it than ever before, but all this activity will be carried on with a consciousness upon the child's part of its pragmatic value and of its place in the great world outside the schoolroom's walls. There will be more art involved because art will come as the reward of spontaneous self-expression in a field sufficiently restricted to make effective expression possible.

The Stars and Stripes for Me

I bare my head to banners
  That others know and love,
But one I hold the fairest
  That decks the blue above.
Whatever be their emblems,
  Wherever they may be,
Stand, if you will, beneath them,—
  But the Stars and Stripes for me.

It stands for all I covet,
  It leads in all I seek;
Its folds afford protection
  And succor to the weak;
It stands for right and justice,
  And peace and liberty.
To others you are welcome,—
  But the Stars and Stripes for me.

No flag shall wave above it
  On any purpose bent,
Nor snatch its honor from it,—
  At least with my consent.
It speaks of proud traditions,
  High hopes for years to be.
No other scheme or banner
  But the Stars and Stripes for me.

CLARENCE E. FLYNN.

Better English Week

Margaret Siebert, High School, Fairhaven, Mass.

NO one thing in recent years has done more to promote correct speech with pupils in American schools than the "Better Speech Movement." The annual observance of Better English Week has become an important phase of the work of the English instructor. Progressive teachers of English, however, will observe Better English Week, not only for the help it will give them in their work but also because it is a benefit to society at large. It will stimulate others, outside of the school, to the use of better English, increasing their satisfactions and raising their self-respect by giving them new sources of pride and pleasure. Moreover, it will afford another connection between the activities of the school and those of the community.

The first thing to do is to secure advance publicity in order to arouse interest and enthusiasm both within and without the school. The newspaper can help by publishing statements of the meaning and objective of Better English Week. On the Sunday or Sundays preceding, the ministers can mention the movement and ask for co-operation. A committee of pupils, made up equally of girls and boys and preferably chosen as their representatives by their fellow pupils rather than by the teacher, should visit the mayor and request him to issue a proclamation some days before the observance. Letters, written in co-operation with the Commercial department of the school and sent to the principal clubs and other organizations of the city, will be found effective.

When it comes to actual observance there might easily be daily articles in all the local papers, written by pupils. For these there should be some pre-arrangement to publish. Committees, like that which visits the mayor, should also visit the editorial staffs of the local papers to solicit their co-operation. They should secure, if possible, the help of editorial comment as well as news and correspondence space.

Numerous posters should be displayed prominently all over the city. These posters should be prepared under the co-operative direction of the Art department or the Printing department of the schools. Lantern slides for use in the moving picture houses may also be prepared by the further co-operation of the Art and Science departments and banners may be made under the joint supervision of the Art and Domestic Science departments. The Science department, in conjunction with the electric light company or some electrical supply house, could add a fitting climax to all this departmental co-operation by arranging for an illuminated display in some prominent place.

High school pupils should be sent into the upper and middle grades and upper grade pupils into the primary grades to talk for a few moments in the interest of better English. These pupils should invariably be sent by their fellow pupils as their representatives, after being chosen on the basis of their capacity to do well. Members of the upper classes of the high school, likewise invariably chosen to represent their fellow pupils and advertised as being the representatives of those pupils, may appear as "four-minute men" in the moving picture houses every afternoon and evening just prior to the exhibition of the slides produced and shown in behalf of the movement. Some churches would welcome similar speakers and give them a place at their Sunday evening services or midweek meetings.

Within the schools themselves, special daily assemblies, organized and addressed by the pupils, should afford opportunity for the reading of the best productions from the English department in the interest of better English. Arguments for better English should also be presented and selections from the best English rendered by the most capable. If possible there should be a great mass meeting of upper grade pupils for the same purpose, at which they may be addressed by some of their own members in similar fashion.

A few more general suggestions along the line of method deserve attention. First of all, the teachers should do nothing that pupils can do. The pupils will get out of the week's observance just what they put into it, and they will arouse

far more interest on the part of the general populace than the teacher can. Furthermore, one pupil should not be assigned work that can be to any profitable degree assigned to a committee. Get as many interested and active as possible. This interest and activity should be motivated by a sense of value in the work being done. The pupils who visit the mayor and the editors, for instance, should be made to realize that they are asking favors, yet they should also see that they are rendering service. The favors are not only for themselves but for others as well, and this should be made clear to the mayor and the others. Especially, if you would get your appeal across to the out of school community it will be necessary to do so by way of people's interests,—interest in their children, in their well-being, in being well-thought of, etc. Appeal to these interests in vivid and varied manner so constantly that they will take hold, of their own accord.

There would be a decided advantage in some cases in working toward something very definite. Better English Week, this year in Handsomehurst, might thus consist of a campaign for unity, or for better handwriting, or for better pronunciation or increased vocabulary, or any one of several other like considerations. Or one day of the week might be devoted to one of these and another day to another. This simply means that the thing or things that most need to be done in Handsomehurst to improve English would receive specific emphasis.

Finally, at the risk of incurring the reader's displeasure, just two don'ts. First, don't use Better English Week for the purpose of trying to correct common errors. That will fail and will further result in promptly and properly killing all the enthusiasm you have so carefully worked up. Let your work be constructive rather than merely corrective. And second, don't occupy the limelight. You are working for better English; not for bouquets for Mary Jane Smith. If you are looking for bouquets don't be surprised if they later lose their freshness. Better English is more permanent; hence, stay behind the curtain and work your organization by the most effective and quiet machine methods you can.

The Need for Techniques of School Discipline

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IF, for a moment, we eavesdrop upon almost any gathering of teachers, whether three or four in the lunchroom, a county-institute assemblage, or a group of principals, we shall find their conversation surely coming to deal with one topic. Whatever else may be discussed, the conversation sooner or later comes to problems of discipline—of classroom management. It may be the grade teacher telling of her troubles with one "naughty child" who will not obey: or it may be a principal lamenting the slackness of his faculty in securing order: or even one teacher denouncing, in his absence, another for allowing disturbance in class. The topic recurs and recurs.

Nor is this to be wondered at. Nearly a decade ago, Littler found that 15.5 per cent of all teacher failures were admittedly caused by lack of discipline. With reason we might add to this fraction his categories of 14.8 per cent additional caused by "lack of proper personality," knowing from experience that this usually has its effect most markedly in matters of discipline; also, surely, the 3.2 per cent who failed for "lack of tact." Let us take only half of the cases in each of the last two groups as coming within disciplinary troubles; we nevertheless get the large proportion of 25 per cent of all teacher-failures as due to trouble with discipline. It will be a familiar fact to all teachers that a large amount of nervous strain not actually causing failure, but diminishing the effectiveness of professional work and harming the health of teachers, is also caused by this same matter of discipline. On every hand there is evidence for the importance of the teacher's solving this problem.

There is evidence also that the difficulties of discipline are rather increasing than otherwise. The shortage of teachers has caused the employment of many inadequately trained persons in schools; what troubles they have, not only affect their own work, but produce habits in the children with which better-trained teachers have to cope later in the educational process. The press remarks upon "the Bolshevistic spirit of the working men," and the parents more and more admit that "they have lost control over their children." The contrast between the amount of indiscipline permitted when I was in a private school in New York as a pupil, in 1905 and 1906, and what I found in a similar school in that city, teaching there in 1921, was very marked, and would appear to be typical. The change has been most marked since 1915. The trustees and administrative officers, whom Dr. M. V. O'Shea could describe as recently as 1913 as "esteeming *good order* more highly than anything else in teaching," have in the main come nowadays to a despairing acquiescence in the situation, or have been so infected by the trend of times as not to know that they have become lax. Nowadays, it is, apparently, the teacher who is tactless in his methods of discipline, or the teacher who insists strongly upon discipline, who gets the very treatment that used to be meted out to the recalcitrant pupil.

In fact, we even have several schools of educators who are so "modern" that they believe discipline should not be sought for. This sentimentality and "respect for the personality of the child" is not confined to the Ferre-Tolstoy "Free School" partizans, but is found in many a principal's and superintendet's office.

Before proceeding further with the discussion there are certain points that need to be cleared up. I put them in the form of questions:—

Do the social habits acquired under school discipline have any value for the adult citizen of this republic?

Do the habits acquired under school discipline pass over into habits in adult life?

Do these habits provide psychological bases for forms of judgment desirable for citizens in this republic?

Does absence of discipline in school interfere with either the formation of such habits as are involved in the "tool subjects" of instruction or the acquisition of this information in other subjects?

To what extent is it the function of the schools to produce socially desirable habits?

It is often asserted that school discipline does not produce results of social value to the American citizen. We are told that inasmuch as the school is monarchical, the habits cannot be the same as those required in adult life. This criticism is, of course, based upon a misunderstanding. Once the rightfulness of any authority, whether it be that of the democratic republic or that of the school, is recognized, the same general habits of conformity are required. The general lawlessness manifest in our country in these days, whether it be the providing the gallons of moonshine at the reunion of a well-known social organization, the callous disregard of pedestrians by motorists in New York, the pitched battles of the coal fields, or the epidemic of mail robberies, would tend to indicate that as a nation we are not trained in the right way while young. In this respect we can learn much from the British and the South Africans, who are habitually law-abiding peoples, and whose government is probably more completely democratic than our own. These are two nations in which the schools insist definitely and firmly upon obedience and discipline; yet there are certainly no more democratic peoples on earth—not even ourselves.

Dr. David Snedden, in his "Sociological Determination of Objectives in Education" raises the second point, as to the transfer of school discipline into adult life. It is plain that there is never a complete transfer, and it is equally plain that excessive and military discipline do not persist in their effects. Dean Clark, in "Discipline and the Derelict" indicates that in his experience excessive discipline in the years just before entering college—as at military academies—leads to slackness of the worst sort, when pupils pass on into college. It must be said that Dean Clark also agrees with the generally accepted opinion that

slack discipline in high school makes slack college students. It is safe to conclude that if the discipline of school is firm, yet not severe, and particularly if it is administered sympathetically while being made comprehensible to the students, it produces persistent habits. Otherwise, it is fruitless.

The dependence of our ethical and social judgments upon our habits is now so well understood that there can be little doubt but that habits formed in school determine very largely the character of the adult's civic life. It must, moreover, be obvious that habits of obedience to law, of agreeing with the constituted authority, and of understanding its authority, are of distinct value for citizenship. We are in danger, in this country, not of servility but of anarchical individualism destructive to the social whole.

It is somewhat more difficult to discover the facts as to the relation between discipline and attainments in the various subjects of study. Our standardized tests, which might be expected to aid us, are all too recent to give us any data. They are all from within the period of indiscipline in the schools. The modern "enriched" curriculum lessens the time for the old-fashioned studies, so that any comparison with former times is made still more difficult. Comparison with British, South African, or other schools abroad is not practicable, for the curricula differ in distribution of time from ours. It would appear to be the general professional opinion that unless lack of discipline is carried to the extent of actual disturbance of class work, there is no measurable loss of attainments. This is probably due to the fact that the greater freedom of the contemporary schools has given to the process of learning a pleasurable feeling-tone previously absent. The unfortunate fact is, however, admitted, that in the hands of many untrained teachers, such as are today only too prevalent in the school, and even in the hands of many trained teachers, lack of discipline is distinctly interfering with the attainments of pupils by preventing uninterrupted work. In a paper such as this, we must by no means limit ourselves to the situations of the classes managed by the better teachers: it

is as an aid to the unsuccessful that this article has any reason for existence.

Answering the last of the questions propounded above, it must be stated that we have as yet not fully realized our professional responsibility. We have in the last two or three decades had handed over to us from the home more than the original school-function of instruction. The parents rely upon us for much of the socialization-training which was carried on in the home even a generation ago. Formerly the parents, aided by the churches, carried on this training in social habits of living. The influence of the church has all but vanished, so far as the rising generation of today is concerned; the home has largely ceased to function towards this end. In this age of movies, automobiling, jazz, and material well-being, the homes of the nation are for the most part simply not exerting any influence in moral training. The children are simply let go their own way, and no coercion, however mild, towards habits of good social living, is exerted. We may see the trend of affairs in the orgy of profiteering during the war, the Polyanna brands of mob-enthusiasm, which are used for Ku Klux purposes and for un-American campaigns of "Americanization" as well as for Liberty Loan drives, the ready response of the public to salacious movies, etc.

Let us take our professional duty in this matter seriously, and with it raise our profession to the esteem and financial status for which we have so long striven. If we are faithful to our duty in this, we cannot longer be denied financial and social rank along with the medical and legal professions.

Up to the present, the problem of discipline, although felt enough to find discussion in nearly every book upon teaching, has not been dealt with thoroughly. The tendency has been to attribute much of success and failure in this matter to the imponderable factors of "tact," "the personal equation," and "personality." A century ago the same was true of the other phases of professional work: there was no definitely known, recorded, and analysed process of instruction. Today we have the "method of the recitation" in the classical Herbartian form,

and a number of later techniques more or less involving this one. It is now possible for a teacher to learn the technique of instruction as definitely as the surgeon learns that of bandaging, or the dentist that of extraction. This has been an unquestioned gain in professional efficiency, and has not resulted in the least in the suppression of the personality of the teacher. On the contrary, it has rather proven a means of better and fuller expression for the personality of the teacher. It may be said also that the learning of the technique of administering serums has not limited the personality or the professional use of it in the case of the medical man; nor has there been any restrictive effect upon the lawyer from learning the methods of practice in the Federal Courts. Why then leave the teacher to inane, vague, and irrelevant advice such as "Keep the class busy." I therefore assume, without need to defend my assumption, and without so doing, that discipline of the school may be reduced to either one technique or a series of techniques, exactly as has been done with the instruction of the school. In this I have the precedent of the valuable book of Miss Morehouse, "The Discipline of the School" and that of Dr. O'Shea, in his "Everyday Problems of Teaching." These two books, along with Dr. Bagley's "Classroom Management," and "School Discipline" are really the only literature upon discipline that we have. None of them, nor all together, give a *technique of discipline*: but they collect many devices which can probably be worked up into a series of techniques. We stand, therefore, at the beginning of a development which is possible and desirable. It is for us of today to make it actual.

In closing this section of the discussion, it is necessary to say also that a technique is needed for discipline from the executive and administrative viewpoint as well as from that of the teacher in the classroom. Without indulging in any jeremiads or complaints, it must here be made clear that administrative officers are lamentably vague and undecided in matters of discipline. It will be necessary to educate these officers up to the necessities of the situation, and therefore to develop a technique. It has become increasingly apparent to me during a varied experience

that the principals and superintendents as a group are unwilling to deal with the matter of discipline. Unlike the medical profession, in which there is so strong a professional code of honor that one doctor always backs up another, even if he thinks him wrong, we have the sorry spectacle of the higher officials bowing to public whim or their imagined ideas of it. It is not going too far to say that the sources of disciplinary trouble should be sought in the superior officers in each case as well as in the teacher involved.

The present situation is that the average principal is afraid to uphold teachers more stringent than he personally is, and also he is very reluctant to uphold the teacher who aims to settle the matter for his class by treating some one early or conspicuous case drastically. It will not be unfamiliar to educators that many principals, and in turn many superintendents and school boards, are cowed by parents who are unwilling that their little Willies and Susies be treated sufficiently harshly to produce any effect. At present, despite many honorable exceptions, there is almost always some one in the line of authority who will not uphold teachers in their efforts to conquer the childish mob-mind so often present. If the teacher persists, there is merely the wrath of officials and parents to be appeased, and the teacher is made the victim. This, of course, should not be; but before it ends, a definite body of principles for administrative officers to follow must be evolved, must be supported by public, and especially by professional opinion, and the officers who fail to live up to these must be *made* to conform—perhaps by being unable to get teachers.

Such is the present situation: indiscipline exists; teachers are without technique to meet it; they are advised vaguely when in difficulty; they have only collections of devices offered them, to help them; and administrative officers are at least equal sharers in the responsibility for the situation.

Influences Leading to the Discovery of America

Mary Emily Clark, Principal, George Biddle High School, Cecilton, Md.

IT has been my experience in beginning the study of U. S. history in the Senior Year of the high school, that many pupils have forgotten much of the story of Columbus, although they are supposed to know it, and although it is, in the main, familiar, the details are so vague, the causes so unknown, and the actual accomplishment so undetermined, that a thorough study will well repay the time spent upon it. The following lesson is an adaptation of the so-called socialized recitation.

Aims: (see Whitney, Socialized Recitation)

To understand why Columbus came to America.
To give training in getting material from books.
To correct wrong impressions.
To aid the pupil to form the habit of concentrated effort and attention.
To teach pupils to work together.
To train in good oral expression.

First assignment: Read first, pages 15-21 in Channing, Student's History of the United States. (Any good text would serve for this). This gives the necessary foundation, and after a class discussion, in which the pupils' knowledge is brought out, they are ready for the special assignment. My class has nine members, and I read one assignment myself.

Individual Assignments.

Fiske, Discovery of America, ch. 5.
Knox, Marco Polo, chs. 2, 19.
Haaren and Poland, Famous Men of the Middle Ages, ch. 24.

Jacobs, Story of Geographical Discovery, chs. 4, 5, 6.
Mabie, Legends Every Child Should Know,—Prester John.
Shaw, Discoverers and Explorers, pages 16-40.
Stapley, Columbus, chs. 1-9.
Barstow, Explorers and Settlers, pages 3-31.
Guerber, Thirteen Colonies, chs. 4-10.
Tennyson, Columbus.

The pupils reported,—standing before the class, notes were taken, and opportunity was given to ask questions. At the end of each recitation, we had a general discussion. At first the discussion was somewhat stiff, but improved as we continued the work.

After hearing the report from Knox, we found that rather full notes had been taken, and questions like these were asked:

"Why were additional planks added to the boats?"
"How did the people in India become civilized?"
"Why did not China profit by her knowledge?"
"Was Japan as rich as is indicated?"
"Who was Prester John?"
"Why did Columbus prefer going by sea?"

Following Knox, Haaren and Poland's account was given. This story is well organized and adapted to easy understanding; and although intended for the grades, is very useful in high school. This led to a lively discussion as to the value of Knox, and Haaren and Poland, leading to a comparison of sources and secondary works.

Guerber's Thirteen Colonies brought the following questions:

"Did Columbus know of the Norse voyages?"
"Did people actually believe such "queer things" about the ocean?"
"Who was Prince Henry?"

The lessons continued in similar fashion day after day until we had completed the reference material. Then I assigned certain questions for a general discussion:

1. Name the influences bearing upon Columbus's course of action.
2. Which was most potent?
3. Why would he be interested in Marco Polo's book?
4. Name the books studied in this series of lessons.
5. Which do you like best? Why?
6. Which do you think most reliable? Why?
7. What differences did you notice in the accounts?
8. Where did all accounts agree?
9. Do you think that Channing devoted enough space to Columbus? Why?
10. Why do we emphasize the story of Columbus?
11. Why is Prince Henry so important?
12. Which man, Columbus or Da Gama, accomplished what he set out to do?
13. Which discovery is of more value to the world? Why?
14. Is this a satisfactory method of study? Explain.
15. How often would you want a series like this?

The discussion disclosed the fact that the class knew more of Columbus and his contemporaries than the teacher had dreamed possible. Their interest was keen, and their expression free and natural as such work should be. They really liked it. As one boy said, "Gee! I always thought before that Columbus 'just came'!"

As the last step each pupil was required to hand in a written summary of the series, the paper being credited to both history and English.

The lesson really paid. Of course it would not be possible, or desirable, to conduct all recitations along these lines; but as an occasional thing, with striking periods in our history, it will be found profitable. And, while it means additional labor to the teacher, he will find his own knowledge of history, of books, and of human nature, increasing.

Some Observations on Vocational Guidance

Margaret Cunningham Ellis, Head of Girls' Division, Continuation School, Springfield, Mass.

FOR many years past the regular school population has moved on, uninterrupted without pilot or guide, in three cycles or stages. The child entered the kindergarten or the primary grade, went on into the elementary school, thence to the grammar school, en route for *the* high school, or in later years to some particular high school. Through the primary, elementary and grammar school there was no choice of courses: no differentiations were made; all pupils took the same course outlined for the particular grade. The work had to be covered from P. 77 to P. 283 inclusive, without regard to individuality, originality, or vocationality, and a "passing mark" obtained by the pupil. Those who dropped by the wayside, and couldn't master the "Conjugation of the Verb To Be" were looked upon as dull and hopeless, even though they possessed much general and practical information not found in the *texts* being used. They just "dropped out of school," and went to work. As a rule the school never knew anything more about them, though I suppose somewhere in a dusty card catalogue, they were indexed among the hopeless failures. No one ever interviewed them or their parents with regard to the type of occupation they had taken up, or what plans were in store for their future. They had no doubt caused considereable annoyance in school, and though many of us are loath to admit it, teachers and principals alike breathed a sigh of relief when "John" and "Henry" "dropped out." Is it any wonder that such was the case, for "John" and "Henry" didn't fit the course and the course didn't fit them.

No vocational guidance was deemed necessary, as there was

only one course for the pupil to pursue. Failing in this he "dropped out." No attempt was made to find out his particular fitness for any kind of work, or his adaptation to any special occupation. This was outside the teacher's realm. The teacher merely followed the prescribed course of study, and in many cases thought more about covering subjects than teaching boys and girls. The only attempt made at vocational guidance of any kind was in the last grade (8th or 9th) in grammar school. Here the school had to face the responsibility of helping pupils select the high school which would best fit the individual needs. All pupils had come by the same route, and now that they had finished the grammar school, a choice must be made. It was a momentous decision, but the average teacher gave little thought to the matter, and the pupils made their own choice, in most cases in a hap-hazard way. However, I have in mind a ninth grade teacher and principal of rare ability, who really did excellent vocational guidance work, although at that time not so called. No time or energy was spared to get all possible information that would guide the pupils in making a wise choice. Parents were interviewed; they came to the school; teacher and principal acquainted themselves with the home, family conditions, circumstances and probability of higher education; pupils were given as many experiences and "try-outs" as possible to determine their fitness; all were taken into consideration before a choice of courses was made. It has also been my privilege to follow the work of some of these same grammar school pupils who were so wisely guided to the high school work, and their success attests that the guidance was valuable.

But the principal and teacher who did this exceptional vocational guidance work were persons of scholarly standing, broad vision, generally and unusually well informed beyond the narrow walls of the schoolroom, and possessing practical common sense, In a quiet way they aimed to put "John" and "Mary" in the proper grooves, where abilities would give the best results, leading to occupations which would bring success, thereby bringing happiness not only to themselves, but making them useful mem-

bers of society. This principal and teacher knew what work was being offered by the various high school courses; they knew the aims and content of courses, and what they would prepare for, therefore their advice to pupils was valuable. No special records or systems of investigation were kept. The teacher and principal knew the individuals, and they left no stone unturned to discover latent abilities. The case cited is no doubt only one of many examples that might be given throughout the country, where teachers of unusual ability have been doing vocational guidance work for some time, purely of their own volition, and with sincere purpose assisting the youth of our land to pursue the right courses, and engage in work for which they are best fitted. All honor to them—the only regret is that so few of us have caught their vision of training wisely and placing properly.

As previously stated, the rank and file of teachers had nothing whatever to do with vocational guidance. It didn't interest them; it wasn't their work and they knew nothing about it. How then could they advise others? But suddenly the junior high school courses were introduced, and the elementary teacher so long dormant was awakened to the fact that these boys and girls under her supervision must choose a course leading either to a commercial, classical, technical or vocational school. In the majority of cases the parents didn't know what their children were best fitted for, and frankly confessed it. Without a system of "try-out" courses, and definite data, it was not easy for the principal of a large school to decide off hand that "John" would make a civil engineer and "Mary" a nurse. Thus much of the information must be taken from the classroom teacher, and this presents the great problem, for the information in a large majority of cases still comes from the classroom teacher, and upon her and her alone rests the decision as to choice of courses. Of course the pupil's desires, whims and fancies enter into it in a large measure; when Miss X— tells the parents that their boy ought to take a course leading to a technical school, the parents are pretty apt to follow the teacher's advice. Quoting from my own experience, I have had the majority of pupils in almost

every class tell me that their parents stated that they could take the course which I advised. What a responsibility for any teacher to face! Are we as teachers capable of advising wisely? Do we really know what the various high schools offer? Have we any idea about the various occupations or professions that these schools will lead to? Do we know anything about the industries in our community, the occupations open in such industries for those who will not take high school courses?

The classroom teacher of thirty to forty pupils following a prescribed course of study, trying to "keep up to the demands of the job," does not ordinarily have the opportunity to "try-out" pupils in divers ways that will be valuable in making a wise selection of courses. Yet, where there is not a specialized vocational counselor, or some definite system in the school of pooling information about individuals, the teacher recommends to the parent that "Henry" had better take a course leading to a business high school, "John", a course leading to a technical school, and "Mary", a course leading to a classical high school. The chances are that the reasons for such advice are of shallow foundation, and made without study or investigation, yet the parent accepts it. The teacher has said so, or "John" decides for himself that he'll take a certain course, because some friend is taking it, or he has learned that it was considered easy "to get by." Thus the choice of courses is finally arrived at according to the teacher's "say-so" or "John's" whim or associates. The parents have little voice in the matter, and honor the teacher's advice.

How can the elementary school teacher give any help in vocational guidance, unless she knows what the various high school courses offer, what they will prepare for, the general nature of the various occupations that will grow out of such courses, as well as more about the individual pupils. I have in mind a teacher who was accustomed to tell the boys not to go to a business high school, as that only offered shorthand, typewriting etc., and that was girls' work. On the other hand she told the brightest boys to go to a classical or technical high school, and those not so completely "book-minded" to go to a vocational

school, as there they would work with their hands, and wouldn't need to do brain work.

What a crime to divert from business and from a business education, boys who were excellent material for successful business men. Their circumstances were such that in many cases they would not go on to college, therefore, the greater reason that they be equipped for the business world. This teacher had no knowledge of the commercial or industrial needs of business. She knew nothing about the geography of commerce, ocean or rail transportation, foreign trade, finance, salesmanship, or the many branches that the business world offers today. Each year corporations, banking houses, business establishments of all kinds demand the best brains trained for the business world. Yet this teacher was advising "John", twelve years old, to go to a technical school, notwithstanding the fact that "John" was already a shrewd buyer and a born salesman, having an ice business in the summer, when the regular ice man missed some customers, that amounted to $3 or $4 per week, and a kindling wood business in the winter that netted him even more. Her only reason was, "John is such a bright boy." True, "John" was a bright boy, but do we not need "bright" men in business? Of course "John" was the type of boy that could go into business via a technical or classical high school; he would do anything well, but he wasn't interested in mechnical work of any kind. He abhorred mechanical drawing, but liked to manage the boys on his street, buy and sell, and have smaller boys work for him. I believe that boy had the qualities of a real executive, for he could get other boys to work for him without the "big boss" idea, and he also had a faculty of getting bigger boys to work for him who were stronger and more capable in many ways. But the teacher's only idea of a business high school course was shorthand and typewriting. It would be an eye-opener to such a person to learn that many men who are today heads of banking houses and large corporations, began work as regular stenographers, advanced to private secretary, perhaps for one of the officers of the company, and in that way obtained a knowledge of the business

which led to promotion. With many young men entering the business world today, shorthand and typewriting act as a wedge for them to work their way into the business. Many heads of departments prefer a young man for a private secretary, as the nature of the business may be such that in case of their absence, a young man would be better able to perform the duties necessary.

And what about the boy who is told to go to a vocational school where he won't need to use his brains, because he happens to have an inventive or mechanical turn of mind, and gets his information by experience and experimentation, rather than from the set text book? Has such a teacher any knowledge of the brain work necessary that must go hand in hand with learning the trade of pattern making, cabinet making, printing, sheet metal work, or whatever the school offers? Is this any place for the mentally backward or the moron? Yet such persons with no knowledge of the work of practical arts or vocational courses, have for some time been unconsciously placing a stigma on them by insinuating that they were for the backward pupils who couldn't do the work of the regular grade. If this is true, then we are indebted to many so called "backward" men and women who had initiative enough to break away from the set school curriculum, and educate themselves by originating and inventing. The school did not offer the opportunity, so they made the opportunity, and as a result we are reaping the benefits of inventions and original ideas throughout the world. Originality, so often not fostered in our schools, has led men like Hargreves, Cartwright, Jacquard and Crompton to leave the beaten track, and give to the world inventions and devices that make the textile industry today, one of the greatest. Is it dishonorable to work with one's hands? Trace the work of a Watt, a Franklin, or a Fulton, down to Bell, Edison, Marconi and Wright of the present day. Were they afraid to work with their hands? Where would our public utilities be, and what progress would have been made in the world were it not for work with the hands? From the time that Christ worked as a carpenter at Nazareth, on down through the ages to the days when Abraham Lincoln split rails, and later

John Wanamaker, destined to become one of the world's great merchants, swept out the store where he worked in the early morning, mankind has been benefited by work with the hands. The joy of *doing* is as great as the joy of *planning*. Each has its place, and each is necessary.

As teachers we ought to realize that brain work and hand work must go together. One is dependent on the other. If we do not feel and know the proper values, we can't give vocational assistance. There are many "round pegs in square holes" in all lines of business, and no doubt in the teaching profession, because somebody gave us wrong advice or no advice at all, and many of us are trying to follow out what we think we can do, rather than what we can actually do. A noted educator has said, "All is wrong when able men are busy with questions of finance, and the training of human beings is left to dolts and dullards." I would add to this that in addition to having able men and women train the boys and girls, we should also have able vocational guidance given to each individual, thereby not only saving the individuals, but also saving the great overturn of labor which is always a loss to the business, but made necessary by the misfits and lack of guidance in school and in industry. We are still academically biased, in spite of the efforts of trade and vocational schools of all types. It has been with great reluctance in many cases that money has been appropriated to train people to work with their hands as well as with their brains. The majority of teachers of the land still have an academic viewpoint, even though many of them talk glibly on vocational work; they still radiate the subtle feeling that work with the hands is not as dignified as work with the brain alone. This feeling has gone broadcast over the country, and is shown very plainly in connection with employment work today. It can't be eliminated at once. We have been bred in the thought that it was more respectable to be the village school master, or doctor rather than a plumber or a carpenter. We may have excellent vocational guidance work given, yet if a girl is told that she is best fitted for certain types of domestic work, and will make an excellent

cook, and a boy is told that he'll make a good carpenter, but still society looks askance at them, because they are working with their hands, is our advancement in vocational guidance work to be very rapid? Yet such training, must come gradually, and through that greatest of world's democracies—*the public schools.*

Look around us in the world today and note which is easier to secure, hand workers or brain workers. If one has anything to do with employment at the present time, he will find a scarcity of all types of artisans in the building trades throughout the country, yet the market is flooded with inefficient clerical help. Everybody wants to do office work; especially the most inefficient are seeking positions for which they are not trained. It is well nigh an impossibility to get a girl or a woman to do housework. People seem to think that education is a substitute for work. Even in our department stores, "selling" is not considered as fine as office work, and girls and boys, excellent material for selling goods, are continually asking to be transferred to offices, even though the "selling" position offers a much more lucrative future.

The most pertinent observations that have come to my attention along the line of the much talked of vocational guidance work are:

1. The need of an expert vocational guidance director in every school. It would seem that a teacher of experience in each school, with a natural tendency for such work, plus the power to get information about the pupils, to investigate, and "try-out" in accordance with advice from the school psychologist, would be a valuable acquisition.

2. If teachers in the elementary schools are to continue being practically the sole judges, that they be given explicit data in regard to courses offered in the senior high schools, and what such courses will prepare for.

3. All possible "try-outs" and experiences to be arranged for, according to the needs in each school.

4. Every pupil who leaves school to be given special and definite guidance leading to an occupation for which he has shown

some aptitude, and follow up on his work. In the continuation schools, we see constant evidence of pupils set adrift on the world without chart or compass.

5. Constant investigations of occupations, so that the director of vocational guidance will have a general idea of the demands of the various jobs, the requirements necessary, and the probable line of promotion.

6. Visits to the home and sympathetic interviews with parents must also be constant.

Finally, while much is being said and written about vocational guidance, very little has been *done*. Systems of all kinds are being inaugurated for the keeping of records, and they are very good, but let us not forget that the teacher or whoever is designated to be the vocational guider is the most important factor of all. Such a person must have rare qualities, and be more than a card cataloguer of information. Kindness, sympathetic understanding, and a broad vision of the demands of business and industry are necessary to guide aright. Records are only a means to an end, but guidance is a matter far higher—it is leading souls in the right path, and not only helping the individual, but benefiting mankind in general. To do work one loves is to be happy. "Blessed is he who, having found the highest thing he is able to do, gives his life to the task."

The Model Short Story: Ruth and Naomi

Florence A. Cummings, Dorchester, Mass.

WHEN reading the story of Ruth and Naomi we unconsciously pause to ask, "Who was this writer, living fourteen-hundred years before Christ, who could produce such marvellous literature? How did he acquire the art of story telling in a manner so perfect that it still remains a model of literary excellency?" No tale was ever told in a more masterly manner. Nothing in ancient or modern fiction surpasses the author's cleverness in depicting the character of these loyal-hearted women. Here is a perfect specimen of short story writing, perfect not only in literary merit, but in moral point of view as well; and the entire tale told without dash or what is technically known as fine writing.

Evidently the author was a Hebrew: one who desired to teach a great lesson to his race. He believed, beyond a doubt, that a severe penalty would be inflicted upon those who journeyed into the land of the idolator. This was the lesson that he desired to set forth: that Jehovah would punish all who deserted their native land. What a moral for the present-day waring nations of the earth!

But notwithstanding the author's views regarding those who leave their native land, he is careful not to utter a word of condemnation against the course of Naomi and her family. Yet we are given to believe that the life of Elimelech and his two sons would have been spared had they remained in Israel. This conclusion is largely gained from inference; but the writer managed the situation so skillfully that we are unable to tell just how we gain our conclusion.

Let us consider by what means the author produced such vivid scenes, and gave us such interesting facts in so short a narrative. Surely, it is not the use of impressive words that makes the tale so charming, for the story of Ruth is told so simply that even a child can comprehend its meaning. Only the bare facts of

the tale are given, and even these are recorded in the fewest possible words; still the brevity, although conspicuous, is brought about so cleverly that the narration does not suffer, neither from lack of words nor from want of detail. If the brevity were handled less skillfully, the story would suffer throughout. But as it stands, the story gives one the impression of being complete, presenting, as it does, a sharply outlined portrait of charming color. Its accuracy regarding facts, together with its clearness and detail, makes it a perfect specimen of unity from beginning to end; while the series of incidents, the characters and the dramatic situations pass before the reader like a panorama of real life.

The character of Ruth, of Naomi and of Boaz are perfectly drawn. This is another strong factor employed by the writer. In reading the tale we are able to see this "rose of Moab" in all her beauty and modesty; her renunciation of self and her loyalty and appreciation of Naomi. These qualities unite in making Ruth and ideal woman, one who immediately appeals to our hearts. Naomi, herself, tells us of Ruth's goodness when she proclaims her to be "better that seven sons." Here the author leaves no shadow of doubt as to the character of Ruth. And this was the feeling that a Jewish woman held for her Moabitess daughter-in-law!

So Naomi, a character whom we are forced to admire, is the personification of honesty and unselfishness, a quality which the author seemed to regard as essential to true womanhood. In Naomi we recognize characteristics which we should be proud to have our own mothers possess; for Naomi is always courageous and just, strong and unflinching, even in time of adversity. First, she is presented in her bitterness of heart; then in her maternal love; and, lastly, in her display of profound wisdom in directing the course to be taken by Ruth, whom she so thoroughly loved. In each situation Naomi is accurately depicted, in fact, one is almost able to hear her voice as she gives counsel to the tearful Ruth, telling her to return to the land of her fathers.

And in depicting Boaz, this mighty man of wealth, the same

masterly skill is shown. The gentle consideration with which he treats Ruth, a lonely and unprotected maiden in a strange land,—this act alone proclaims him to be a man of honor, as well as of wealth. The chivalrous speech which he makes to Ruth as she gleans in his field is one of the most beautiful points of the story. If he shrank from forcing her to feel behoven to him for having accepted his bounty, he likewise shrank from showering her with gifts, fearing the slander which might come from such an act. And thus, he takes no possible chance of injuring the character of Ruth or of Naomi; but he commands Ruth to glean in his cornfield and have no fear of the future: that all will be well. And this command puts the maiden at her ease and, kneeling at his feet, she feels confident of his gallantry and protection; or, as the author puts it, she recognizes his "good blood." This, to a girl like Ruth, meant more than polished manners and fine raiment. Had Boaz spoken in arrogance, the whole coloring of the story would have been altered. Here the writer saw the opportunity to teach a lesson in courtesy, at the same time, strengthening his story. By his clever art he was able to teach that civility is due all women of virtuous character, regardless of their station in life.

It is pleasing to feel that the chance meeting of Ruth and Boaz was a just reward for their virtue. We are led to infer that this meeting was not wholly chance, but a just and mysterious Providence, bringing to the righteous doer his full recompense. Doubtless the writer forestalled the impression which the reader naturally gains.

But whatever the facts may be, we are led to feel that if Boaz was Ruth's reward for her faithfulness to Naomi, then Ruth was a recompense to the gracious Boaz in return for his tender consideration of the Moabitess maiden who, coming to him in poverty, remained to be his cherished wife.

All these events transpired hundreds of years ago; and yet, the life and character of these three people still remain an example to this half-pagan world of ours; while the style and form of the story is the wonder and envy of modern-day literary aspirants.

Present Status of Guidance Activities in Junior High Schools

A. H. Edgerton, Supervisor of Vocational Information and Guidance, Detroit, Michigan.

ALTHOUGH recent, the rapid growth of intermediate schools or junior high schools represents a serious attempt in helping all children, regardless of their social status or possible life work, to meet the new and changing demands for many-sided service as members of families and of vocational and civic groups. This growing tendency to respect group needs and individual differences by providing partial differentiation (from one-third to one-half of the school time) during the junior secondary school period is one more evidence of the progressive spirit which is furthering the movement in this country for democratic ideals in public education. While, as a means of general education, these schools are not primarily concerned with the immediate problem of turning out more efficient workers in the workaday world, they do assume that the future wage-earner is a consumer and a citizen, as well as a producer; that a program which neglects to help all individuals to consume intelligently and utilize the hours of leisure wisely is decidedly undemocratic.

In other words, this reorganization of upper-grade curricula aims to use all of its available resources in preparing children to make proper choices and adjustments, and to help determine their own future careers. Consequently, these schools are concerned with the number of boys and girls whom they succeed in encouraging to remain in school for training until they are sufficiently well prepared to choose and enter professional, commercial, industrial, household, and agricultural occupations adapted to their likes and abilities. These objectives assume that both *social and psychological needs of early adolescence should be respected by*

giving appreciative insight into a sufficient number and variety of representative experiences to try out, discover, and develop natural aptitude and ability for understanding and doing, as well as managing and supervising human activities.

Despite the recognized need for providing adequate guidance to assist individuals in deliberately and intelligently choosing both educational opportunities and life occupations, constructive criticism should continue to be directed toward those practices which force unreliable information and unwarranted decisions upon either children or adults. Present-day complexities resulting from the many changes in our social and economic development demand that, at least, adolescent pupils no longer be required to base such important decisions and adjustments upon mere opinion or meager data. In keeping with this belief, an increasing number of school systems are attempting to furnish all junior secondary-school pupils with accurate knowledge concerning the relative opportunities and requirements in the social, economic, and larger personal aspects of the various life callings.

Current Tendencies in 379 Progressive Schools.

This vocational and educational guidance emphasis is favored by 301 of the 379 junior-secondary schools which have recently reported from 21 states on the different activities now being offered to their seventh, eighth, and ninth grade pupils. Table I shows that practically no changes are claimed in the purpose, content, and method of the try-out subjects in less than ten per cent of the so-called reorganized departments. These same data show that over sixty-seven per cent of the 379 schools in question not only include notable changes in their upper grade curricula but also encourage the deferring of definite occupational selections as long as possible. The majority of the school organizations which favor specialization in particular differentiated courses, either beginning with the second semester or at the end of the seventh grade, are located in cities of over 200,000 population.

TABLE I.

THE RELATION BETWEEN THE SIZE OF THE COMMUNITY AND THE CLAIM FOR REORGANIZATION.

Population of Cities	Schools Reported		Claiming Reorganization		Denying Reorganization	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per cent
5,000 to 10,000	76	20	49	13	27	7
10,000 to 25,000	185	49	177	47	8	2
25,000 to 200,000 and over	118	31	116	30.5	2	0.5
Totals	379	100	342	90.5	37	9.5

This indicates that the chief reason why nearly one-third of these schools now foster courses which are optional in name only, and actually impose early choices on their adolescent pupils, may be due to the administrative difficulty involved in offering a greater number and variety of activities to large numbers of pupils. With two exceptions, all of the administrators who have commented on this situation state frankly that they are desirous of overcoming this apparently undemocratic practice, just as soon as a satisfactory arrangement can be devised to meet the administrative problems of providing adequately for all of the pupils.

While over eighty per cent of the 379 schools investigated state that their try-out activities aim (1) to develop the pupil's special aptitudes and capacities and (2) to prepare him for the demands which the future is going to make upon him, there is a decided range of opinion as to how these general objectives may be accomplished most satisfactorily. In the reports from 303 of these schools, each of which gave its main reason for reorganization, the four leading claims, when collated, were found to be given the order of importance listed in Table II. Nearly all concerned are agreed that an effective system of diversified try-outs for seventh, eighth, and ninth grade pupils should provide a basis for the kinds and qualities of knowledge and skill (or dexterity) which will help pupils to establish those habits, attitudes, and appreciations that contribute most to their daily conduct as intelligent citizens, consumers, and producers.

TABLE II.

MAIN REASON GIVEN BY EACH OF 303 SCHOOLS FOR OFFERING TRY-OUT COURSES.

CHIEF EMPHASIS	SCHOOLS Number	Per cent
1. Contributing to the all-round development, general experience and intelligence	118	:39
2. Aiding in the deliberate and wise selection of life occupations without encouraging early choices	101	:33
3. Enriching the school experience of the pupil through concrete situations	78	:26
4. Preparing in the school and through co-operation outside, for direct entrance into vocations	6	: 2

GUIDANCE VALUES IN TRY-OUT COURSES.

The great majority of these 303 schools, which reported on the educational and vocational guidance phases of their instruction, expressed a striking need for representing profitable experiences which are well adapted to the problems of revealing capacities and developing special interests and powers, in keeping with the general aims and purposes of their respective school organizations. Several schools even insisted that this objective could not be accomplished fully unless allowance is made for freedom in choice and for individual experimentation. Others place much emphasis upon such methods for supplementing the school activities as excursions and talks by specialists to aid in considerations of the actual workaday world conditions which they believe will do much in helping boys and girls to discover the value of their inclinations, either in positive or negative ways. It is quite generally believed that the significance of the likes and dislikes which are fostered by pupils of this age, as well as their correspondent relation to abilities and inabilities, has an important bearing on the character of guidance and counsel to be given both during the period of school attendance and the period of early employment, training and adjustment.

Although some promising psychological devices and tests have been developed for selecting persons for specific positions, it is

believed that there is no better method in use at present for discovering capacity for types of experience represented in the school than to observe the degree of success and failure resulting from each division of the school performance. Knowledge of the requirments for the various divisions of professional, commercial, industrial, household, and agricultural occupations is essential; however, the school is not concerned merely with the suitability of children for given positions, but, in the last analysis, it is obligated to ascertain the suitability of such available positions for the boys and girls in question. Not only do some of these schools provide a broad program of studies with opportunity for each pupil to try out, discover, and develop any special capacity for understanding, doing, and managing projects, but they also furnish related information for maturing the pupil's judgment of present-day problems and relationships.

In the most progressive of these schools much of the equipment the materials, and the technique are chosen from important life occupations, but, with those few exceptions listed in Table II, the purpose of the different try-out courses is not primarily to produce skilled workers for definite pursuits. The chief emphasis during this period is rather to *help all pupils to develop perspective and reasoning power in connection with life situations by securing a basis for purposeful election of courses, proper choices of occupations, and later adjustments in employment.* The best of these courses not only include contact with typical materials, equipment, and methods, but also are organized with the intention of (1) giving a broader appreciation of economic production and demanding more respect for the various workers and their work; (2) preparing for intelligent judgment and use of resources, products, and service; (3) helping to develop insight and to promote more worthy citizenship; (4) offering opportunity for testing the interests and aptitudes of students, both in positive and negative ways, in order that worthy needs and capacities may be developed through specific training.

REPRESENTING AND CONDUCTING EXPLORATORY ACTIVITIES.

It unquestionably would be both impracticable and undesirable for any school to represent so great a variety and number of highly specialized occupational pursuits as are listed for any of our cities of mixed industrial and commercial enterprises in the 1920 Report of the United States Census. The expenditure could be justified neither on the basis of educational needs nor of vocational efficiency. Yet our experience during the past few years of experimentation in public school systems has demonstrated clearly that it is possible to offer selected and organized units of typical activities, which will result in varying degrees of understanding and appreciation and give insight into the relative conditions, opportunities and requirments in a number of important occupations, without the danger of over-emphasizing the localized pursuits and the limitations in certain specialized callings.

In the case of industrial arts, for example, these experiences represent a fairly wide range of selections from such occupations as printing and publishing, carpentry, cabinet and furniture making, wood finishing, pattern making, foundry, machine shop, sheet metal, auto-mechanics, concrete, electrical, plumbing and pipe-fitting, photography, household mechanics (general construction and repair), drafting, and the like. Because of the many advantages in having several kinds of materials, tools and machines available in one unit for immediate use, and also because of the extended opportunity for observing several distinct types of construction work, a composite of general workshop plan frequently has been developed as a part of the program for city systems or in preference to a number of separate, specialized shops in the smaller communities. Regardless of the physical layout for offering these experiences, all projects and problems developed in connection with each industrial activity preferably result in serviceable and useful products having a semi-commercial value. As the occasion requires it, each project in the best courses gives some consideration to the kinds and qualities of materials, the

appropriate design and construction, the processes of manufacture, the applied mechanics, physical sciences, and mathematics, and the industrial history and civics as these relate directly to the study at hand.

Beginning in the seventh grade, the pupils in many cities of over 10,000 population are having short exploration periods in a number of shot-units while they are continuing their study in a core of other subjects common to all groups. This plan, including reliable information and systematic counsel, frequently gives both pupils and teachers some sane basis for the future adjustment of courses and selection of life work. When the study of occupations is based upon factual material, rather than upon opinion, which naturally is variable, pupils are better enabled to enter their life careers with some vision of the opportunities and requirements that constitute an intelligent choice of both their occupational and educational selections. Experience in several schools already has shown that this procedure has been an incentive for causing pupils to continue through the ninth grade and to enter the senior high school, in which case they are prepared to choose courses more intelligently and to make progress from the outset.

The majority of the schools report that they are not making a special attempt to emphasize proficiency in specific occupations as low as the seventh and eighth grades, mainly because of their conviction that the industries offer little to boys and girls under 16 years of age. However, a comparatively large number of schools in this group insist that the pupils can be given enough freedom in choice and variety of experiences to help many in the tentative selection of their life work and some in the beginning of their preparation for it. It would seem that these industrial arts courses, which are designed, in part, to test interests and capacities for understanding and doing industrial and mechanical work, do tend to contribute more toward the vocational efficiency of pupils during the ninth grade. If desirable, this is the psychological and physiological time to place somewhat greater emphasis upon technique and the related technical knowledge. As a result of the various exploration experiences during the seventh and eighth

grades, some pupils are found taking more intensive work in activities already started while others prefer to investigate new fields of work or experiment with selected problems. This practice likewise is increasing in many schools which take the attitude that while a number will not be adapted to industrial occupations, either in interest or ability, all should have a general, but an intelligent understanding of productive industry as to important processes, conditions and relationships.

Occupational Information as a Basis for Guidance.

It is now realized that the most urgent need for the majority of pupils from 12 to 16 years of age is not so much for a high degree of manipulative skill as it is for reliable information with which to judge the present conditions, requirements, opportunities and limitations in available occupations. Where the best results have been obtained these courses are paralleled by systematic studies of real productive industry rather than by mere textbook acquaintances. Table III shows three types of related information which are emphasized in connection with the industrial arts courses in 86 of these schools.

TABLE III.

Three Types of Directly and Indirectly Related Information Acquired in 86 Schools.

Kind	Purpose
Technical Information	For enlarging the understanding of tools, materials, operations, and principles directly related to the shop work.
Vocational Information	For illuminating the school experiences by giving insight into commercial processes and methods employed in economic production.
Occupational Information	For helping to appreciate and judge labor conditions, importance of work, health problems, future opportunities, remuneration, qualifications, and training.

While a number of schools have successfully inaugurated separate credit courses in "occupations," "vocational information," and "vocational civics," there still is some question relative to the necessity of resorting to this practice of apparent duplication of studies where a broad and flexible program of courses is offered and suitable provision is made for school counseling. Nevertheless, several schools are continuing to offer such separate courses either because it is necessary to meet a period of transition or because it is not feasible to relieve one or more school representatives to become responsible for group meetings and individual interviews. It is believed that under no condition should these considerations about professional, industrial, commercial, household, and agricultural occupations be made incidental instead of a definite and functioning part of the school program. At any rate, the success of these studies of occupations will be determined largely by the training and experience of the counselors or teachers in charge, and the provision for collecting, evaluating, and imparting the information involved.

In addition to such studies of general conditions and problems in choosing life work and preparing adequately for it, group excursions to local establishments and student reports on investigations of type occupations as to nature of work, main advantages and disadvantages, qualifications and training needed, possibilities and requirements, remuneration, hours of work, seasonal demands, entrance age, time required to learn duties, permanence of work, and deficiencies of workers, are helping pupils to form sound judgments relative to the character and future of positions open to them. As the occasion requires it, pupils are brought in contact with reliable reading matter, unbiased specialists, or whatever sources of information are most needed at the time. In some schools a simple but effective accumulative record is used advantageously, beginning with the seventh grade, to record the inferences of teachers and others based upon activities carried on inside and outside of school, both during the attendance and follow-up periods.

PROBLEMS OF CHOOSING OCCUPATIONS WITHOUT GUIDANCE.

In most large cities there are thousands of boys and girls who have had several unsupervised jobs during two or more years of working experience, most of which have offered comparatively little in employment training and adjustment that will help them to choose suitable life work. At its very best, considering that work has been selected in an occupation which seems to offer good opportunities, the determining factor of success usually depends upon whether or not the child makes good and likes it well enough to continue. As a result of such a hit-and-miss choice, it is no wonder that so many junior wage-earners (considerably over 90 per cent in some child-employing establishments) fail in one position after another until they finally manage to succeed sufficiently well to remain in one. Such a method of trial and error cannot be otherwise than extremely wasteful to all concerned, as it postpones the child's decision until it usually is too late to choose educational opportunities wisely in the secondary school.

Even a tentative choice of one's occupation assumes the successful completion of the required preparation. The accepted policy in the majority of intermediate or junior high schools is that either the first or both semesters of the seventh year offer essentially required work as a basis for the purposeful election of courses. To be sure, the vocations, themselves, often actually try individuals out to varying degrees in several occupational pursuits; but this requires that they must either make a failure or become dissatisfied with one kind of work before they can be tried out in another. In case of failure, it is quite possible that the loss of confidence, which children sometimes experience, does not have the best effect upon their attitudes toward other positions. Then, too, the fact that boys and girls do like and succeed in the work of their first, second, or third choices is by no means an assurance that they have chosen the respective occupations for which they are best suited, since the basis of comparing the opportunities and requirements, in terms of significant likes or dislikes and abilities or inabilities for various types of work too often is lacking.

At any rate, this plan either completely fails to give a background of experience for making satisfactory choices and adjustments, or it succeeds in a fashion after a long drawn out process of elimination. Even though it were possible for inexperienced junior wage-earners to make their own selection of occupational pursuits, which is seldom true, they are certain to lack that variety of information and experience which can help them in choosing life careers intelligently. Many intermediate or junior high schools report that they are *preventing just such emergencies by providing systematic guidance and counsel through both exploratory experiences and reliable occupational information for some time before pupils leave school.*

Haven

Oh, for the peace of a tiny farm,
  And a path that climbs a hill;
And your dear voice, potent charm,
  Singing the love-songs still.

Oh, for a home, Sweetheart o' Mine,
  By meadow and winding lane,
And sweet wet violets that shine
  With glint of April rain.

Today I glimpse, through door of dreams,
  This haven of the heart;
E'en fancied joy has power, it seems,
  To heal the bitter smart.

NANCY BUCKLEY.

American Notes—Editorial

In proposing to create "an aristocracy of brains" by limiting college entrants to those young men who are exceptionally gifted mentally, and therefore equipped for the attainment of highest rank in college and prospective accomplishment afterward, President Hopkins of Dartmouth College (if, indeed, this is what he said) has undoubtedly said something sufficiently startling to provoke a lot of more or less profitable thinking and discussion. If this shall lead to a clearer conception and comprehension of what a college is for and of what it should do for a young man or woman, it will not have been said in vain.

As we understand the proposition it is, in effect, that, college facilities and endowments being limited and the applications for admission being now almost unlimited,—or at least so numerous that all cannot possibly be accommodated,—a sort of "natural selection" must be made, so as to secure a "survival of the fittest." The many must be turned away and must give up their ambition to go through college, leaving that privilege to those only who are already endowed with superior intelligence and who therefore give promise of being of exceptional serviceableness to their fellow men.

As a matter of temporary necessity this may possibly have to be accepted,—under protest, however, to the few hundreds of individuals who own or control something like three-fourths of the wealth of the world. These could and should endow the colleges, so that no one need be shut out who wants to go to college and who, while there, would be willing to use in a proper manner the advantages offered. But the standard of admission should not be an abnormal amount of either money or brains. It should rather be the presence in the applicant of a disposition to make good use of the opportunity offered by the college courses and associations, so as to fit himself for a broader and deeper usefulness to his fellow men throughout his whole post-graduate life. A college which is securing such a result is fully justifying itself and its founders, whether it is turning out captains of industry, magnates of finance, prodigies of learning, princes of statecraft, or just an average lot of common-sense private citizens who will lift the standard of intelligence and thrift of their several communities,—and therefore of the nation,—by reason of their four years of happy, worth-while college life.

The very best service of the college is that which it renders in leavening the whole lump of society; in raising the *average* of intel-

ligence; in a word, in making all who enter and pass through its courses more willing and better able to serve their fellow men. Of course, human nature being what it is, this is not the invariable result of a college course. Some fall by the wayside; some misuse their opportunities and talents. But, happily, we may and do sincerely believe that such cases are the exceptions which only prove the rule.

Now, while we realize that the proposition of President Hopkins is probably one which has arisen out of a temporary emergency in which applications for admission to his and other colleges have come to be far in excess of housing accommodations and teaching facilities, and therefore simply *must* be limited by *some* principle of selection; and while we seriously doubt whether he ever meant to advocate an "aristocracy of brains" in our democratic America, we would like, nevertheless, to record our immediate and emphatic protest against such an interpretation or standard of American college life. The phrase, "aristocracy of brains," has caught the ear of the public and is being given a somewhat wide currency by the press.

We do not want to Prussianize American colleges or American life. We want every young man and every young woman who possibly can, to go to college. We want the college influences to leaven the whole lump of American society. This was the ideal of our fathers. It has not ceased to be the ideal of ourselves. We need not only the experts,—they will certainly be forthcoming; we want the masses to be really and consciously intelligent. The vast majority of college graduates will, in any case, go back after graduation into the ranks of common citizenship. Only a few will become distinguished. But every one should, and most of them will, contribute to raise the average of intelligence,—to shape public opinion, to make free America different from other nations,—a land of enlightenment, of self-control, and of progress. The colleges have contributed mightily to secure these ends. And it has been more, even, by their leavening influences than by the leadership of their more distinguished graduates. America should not covet an "aristocracy of brains," but rather a democracy of intelligence.

A prominent educator, in addressing the Eyesight Conservation Council states that

"The conservation of eyesight with the school children is a necessity. Accuracy of vision has a vital relationship to integrity or obliquity, not only in the field of vision, but in the moral field. Of

the 24,000,000 school children in the United States not more than a third receive reasonably adequate tests of vision, and not more than a third of those who are tested have these defects of vision adequately and properly corrected. It is impossible to measure the loss that this neglect causes to the individual, to the community, to the nation, as a whole. What economic loss, how much loss to science, to art, to invention, to literature; how much loss in the way of preventible illness, misery, physical disability, and dependency occurs through the neglect of the human vision. The defects of vision in children represent one of the most hopeful divisions of physical defects which the children present us. A large per cent can be effectively corrected with less expense and less difficulty than perhaps is true of any other defect. It is necessary to impress the school teachers with the importance of eye care and of regard for the way in which their pupils are using their eyes. The schools of this country are going slowly. They need help. The rapid development of interest in range and intensity of educators, of school officials, of superintendents, principals and teachers over this land is impressive. They can't do it all; they can do relatively little. When it comes to the whole problem of a national program they must be helped. On the outside a good deal of vigorous, enthusiastic and sane publicity and education, to awaken people to an appreciation of the facts and value of the eyes of the children is needed. The mass of parents in this country have little appreciation of the importance of the needs of the children and of what should be done for them. This problem will never be solved until all are willing to enthusiastically and unselfishly co-operate. The community, the school, the state, and the nation can do nothing less than that."

Below we give the concluding paragraphs of a suggested program for a Roosevelt Birthday festival. For similar material teachers can apply to the Woman's Roosevelt Memorial Association, 1 East 57th Street, New York, N. Y.

THE ROOSEVELT CREED (*from an address by Theodore Roosevelt*).—"Virtue by itself is not enough, or anything like enough. Strength must be added to it, and the determination to use that strength. The good man who is ineffective is not able to make his goodness of much account to the people as a whole. No matter how much a man hears the word, small is the credit attached to him if he fails to be a doer also; and in serving the Lord he must remember that he needs avoid sloth in his business as well as cultivate fervency of spirit."

QUOTATION.—"We Americans can only do our allotted task well if we face it steadily and bravely, seeing but not fearing the dangers. Above all we must stand shoulder to shoulder, not asking for the ancestry or creed of our comrades, but only demanding that they be in truth Americans, and that we all work together, heart, hand and head, for the honor and the greatness of our common country."

ROOSEVELT'S LAST MESSAGE (*January the Fifth*, 1919).—"I cannot be with you, and so all I can do is to wish you God-speed. There must be no sagging back in the fight for Americanism. There can be no divided allegiance. We have room in this country for but one flag, the Stars and Stripes: and we should tolerate no allegiance to any other flag, whether a foreign flag, the red flag, or the black flag. We have room for but one loyalty, loyalty to the United States. We have room for but one language, the language of Washington and Lincoln. We have room for but one soul loyalty and that is loyalty to the Ameriacn people."—(*From a letter addressed to the American Defence Society and read at the New York Hippodrome on the night of his death.*)

The United States Bureau of Education, in co-operation with the American Legion and the National Education Association, has undertaken to promote the general observance of an "American Education Week," December 3 to 9. President Harding has given assurance that he will issue a proclamation, and the Governors of the States will be invited to issue proclamations. Every type of national organization has been invited to co-operate, including such organizations as women's clubs, Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, and other business men's clubs, the American Federation of Labor, the Y. M. C. A., the Knights of Columbus, churches, and other religious bodies. Thousands of newspapers are expected to co-operate, some with special education editions, others with editorials and articles stressing the needs of education. The motion picture houses will co-operate. State Departments of Education have been invited to co-operate, and there has been a most encouraging response and assurance from the chief educational officers of the States that they will undertake to push the movement in their respective States.

Book Reviews

So many books are sent to this department of EDUCATION that it is impossible to review them all. Naturally we feel under obligation to give preference to the books of those publishing houses which more or less frequently use our advertising pages. Outside of the limitations thus set, we shall usually be able and glad to mention by title, authors, and publishers, such books as are sent to us for this purpose. More elaborate notices will necessarily be conditional upon our convenience and the character of the books themselves.

SOCIAL WORK IN THE CHURCHES. A Study in the Practice of Fellowship. By Arthur E. Holt. The Pilgrim Press. Price 60 cents.

Part I of this timely volume discusses principles and methods; Part II, practice,—with suggestions. Unquestionably, a new era has dawned in our churches. The doctrinal side of religion, the pure and simple worship aim of the services, and, in a measure, the benevolent aim, have all become subordinated to the social aim and functions. The chapters of this volume dwell upon such topics as The Church and Men, the Brotherhood idea and practice, the Church as an organizer of benevolence, the Church as an ally of the home, the Church and the immediate geographical community. There are chapters on the fellowship principle in social action and in education, the equipment of the Church, and a directory of social service agencies. That there will be, sooner or later, a return current toward the Church as the exponent of revealed religion and as the agency through which God reveals himself historically and individually to mankind, we do not doubt. Just now the thinking of the Church leaders and of the rank and file of the membership is of men as the children of God,—and their various needs. And the emphasis is well worth while.

BIOLOGY OF SEX. For Parents and Teachers. By T. W. Galloway, Ph.D. D. C. Heath & Company. Revised edition.

No thoughtful person will for a moment hesitate to admit that there is dire need of such books as this one. The argument is all summed up in one sentence in the Preface to this most sane and adequate treatment of an all-important subject. The author says: "The object in sex instruction is to improve such normal sex relations as are suggested by the terms boys and girls, men and women, courtship and marriage, husbands and wives, fathers and mothers, sons and daughters, brothers and sisters, homes and family life. We cannot afford to allow masturbation, illicit sex relations, prostitution, illegitimacy, white slavery, venereal disease, or divorce to replace these in our thought or in our educational plans." Parents and teachers will find real and needed help in these plain-spoken, scientific and sympathetic counsels.

HORACE. ODES AND EPODES. A Study in Poetic Word-Order. By H. Darnley Naylor, M.A. Trinity College, Cambridge, Hughes Professor in the University of Adelaide. Cambridge, at The University Press. The Macmillan Company, American representatives.

The author's contention is that there is a word order for the proper expression of various shades of thought and feeling, and in this book he seeks to show from the Epodes of Horace many of these distinctions, and thus to justify (for the most part) the Latin poet's verses. He says in his Preface that his aim is "to show that word-order is no more negligible than it is in prose, and that the rules laid down by Professor J. P. Postgate and exemplified by the author in certain Livian studies are observed by the poet no less than by the writer of prose. This is to say that when Horace, for instance, departs from the normal order, he has a purpose in doing so; he wishes to draw our attention to the abnormality and so to emphasize for us the point that he desires to make." We have quoted this statement in order to show that the book under review is a technical study of a learned and critical nature, the value of which will depend largely upon the technical learning and interest of the scholar and linguist. To the lay reader it might seem as difficult as a treatise on electricity would to a savage. Nevertheless, the real value of such study is justified by its results; and language is seen to be a marvelous endowment of man that relates him to the deity.

WHO'S WHO IN AMERICA. Edited by Albert Nelson Marquis; for 1922-23. Volume 12.

This is the standard book of reference (biographical) for the United States. It is a much used and highly esteemed volume. It contains brief, reliable biographical sketches of nearly 25,000 persons who have succeeded in making their lives count sufficiently to make themselves and their doings worthy of the recognition of their fellow men. Of course, no such book can expect to get reports from everybody. Doubtless there are many who are just as worthy as those who happen to have been invited or to have offered to contribute the statistics of their careers, which are included. The editor will welcome the reports of any such others. Over three thousand new sketches are added to this particular edition which were not included in the last one. The latest address of each is given and there is an Index by state and post office which covers 127 pages.

HOME ECONOMICS IN THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS. By Agnes K. Hanna (formerly of the Home Economics Department of the University of Chicago). Whitcomb & Barrows. Price $2.50.

This volume is one that will furnish Domestic Science teachers and pupils in colleges and normal schools an excellent text for pedagogical purposes. It contains full discussions of a variety of teaching problems and clearly discloses the fundamental purposes of home economics teaching. It is, at the same time a valuable book for thoughtful housekeepers and managers,—though its primary intent is related to the work of the teacher of the subject and her more advanced pupils. A very helpful feature is a clear and comprehensive Outline of each chapter of the book. These outlines are logically developed and furnish a means for exact and comprehensive reviews. At the close of the chapters there are several typical problems to be worked out, each suggested by and illustrative of the principles laid down in the chapters. There are also supplementary references. At the close there is a suggestive and comprehensive Appendix and a full Index of topics contained and discussed in the volume. Throughout there are evidences of wide research, close thinking, and ample training along specialized and yet comprehensive lines.

FARM PROJECTS. By Carl Colvin, M. S. and John Alford Stevenson, Ph. D. The Macmillan Company.

This is a finely illustrated textbook in Agriculture for seventh and eighth grades and junior high schools. One chapter that will at once secure the attention of the pupils is a beautifully illustrated one on "Planting the School Yard." Throughout, the projects will appeal to the child's interest and stimulate habits of thought and action that will be of great value to him throughout life. The volume includes chapters on farm animals, birds, insect pests, machines, crops of various kinds, plant diseases, etc.

RURAL SCHOOL SURVEY OF NEW YORK STATE SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS. By Julian E. Butterworth, Professor of Rural Education, Cornell University. Published at Ithaca, N. Y.

By all means, committees and interested citizens of communities having school building programs should read and digest this informing book. It is a record of actual experience, made in a typical state, under conditions that are duplicated throughout the land. The record has been made and interpreted by one well qualified to see, estimate and relate the methods followed and the results attained.

SOCIAL CIVICS. By William Bennet Munro and Charles Eugene Ozanne. The Macmillan Company.

This comprehensive and thorough treatment of a modern subject is designed for somewhat mature students of Civics. A couple of sentences from the Author's Preface make about as clear a statement of the aims of the authors as is possible. "The primary aim," they say, "has been to get the facts hitched up to the principles, and to set the principles in their right perspective. For this reason considerable space has been given to problems which, although international in scope, are of profound importance to the people of the United States." Including the Index there are 697 pages in the volume. High school seniors and college students will find food for profitable thought here, which will prepare them for the oncoming duties involved in the franchise and the responsibilities of citizenship.

FRENCH SHORT STORIES OF TO-DAY. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Margaret W. Watson. Charles Scribner's Sons. Price $1.

This handy volume of French stories will be very acceptable to advanced students of the French language and to all who are familiar with this language and who like well told stories whatever their medium and setting. The first story is by Clemenceau, and is characteristic of the rugged thought and masterly genius of this great man. There is a brief sketch of each author in connection with each selection. A Vocabulary of less common words and expressions is found in the back part of the volume. Teachers and students of French may well consider this book for class and individual use.

SUCCESSFUL TEACHING IN RURAL SCHOOLS. By Marvin S. Pittman, Ph. D. The American Book Company.

The charm, as well as the value of this interesting volume lies in the fact that it is a record of actual experience by a group of rural teachers who sensed the problem and the need of its solution and then proceeded to solve it. The book is as interesting (more interesting, by far) as a novel. Around the actual experiences the author has wound a thread of blended strands of pedagogical theory and common sense wisdom. In a rural community the teacher gets close to humanity. She can see and realize the results of her efforts. She gets into close contacts that are impossible in urban life. The importance of a book on this subject may be better realized when we remember that the enrollment in the schools of towns in the United States that have less than 2,500 population is 12,615,341 pupils,—as over against 9,116,341 pupils in places of over 2,500 population.

CIVIC SCIENCE IN THE COMMUNITY. By George W. Hunter, Ph.D. and Walter G. Whitman, A.M. The American Book Company.

This is a fine manual for adoption by classes of the later elementary grades or in the earlier junior high school years. It will give the pupil elementary scientific facts and principles as related to life in the community. The ideal community is described, in its origin, its resources, and obligations and advantages. Weather and climatic conditions, water and its place in the life of the community, the organization of the community, its laws, its provisions for pure food, its safeguarding of life and property, its provision for education and recreation, etc., are covered by helpful lessons that are modern and interesting.

RURAL SCHOOL SURVEY OF NEW YORK STATE. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION. By Theodore H. Eaton, Professor of Rural Education, Cornell University. Published at Ithaca.

In New York State districts of less than 4,500 population are "rural." The study of these communities, as reported in this suggestive volume, was very comprehensive and paid special attention to efforts made to meet the needs of the people for vocational education. Administrative problems were not neglected. Educators and citizens of other communities will find the volume most suggestive and inspiring in relation to their own problems and the solution of the same.

MODERN CHEMICAL LECTURE DIAGRAMS. By Geoffrey Martin, assisted by J. M. Dickson and Major J. W. Christelow. London, Sampson, Low, Marston & Co. Price 3s. 6d. net.

These diagrams illustrate with wonderful clearness and accuracy such matters as radioactivity, vapor density, liquefaction of gases, spectrum analysis, the atmosphere, etc., 36 subjects in all. Brief but thorough and easily comprehended explanations of each are given in the text. The manual is an excellent example of British sagacity, perseverance and thoroughness.

OUR YEAR BOOK. By Pupils of Elementary Department, Ethical Culture School. Published by Ethical Culture School, 33 Central Park West, New York City. Price $1.00.

The book is a project by pupils of the Elementary School. Committees from the first to the seventh grades co-operated in writing, compiling and editing this unique booklet. It contains twenty illustrations, including photographs of children's activities, drawings and designs made by the children.

EDUCATION

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Conversion and Education

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HERCULES once met at a cross-roads two allegorical ladies, offering him gifts and tempting him in opposite directions. The essential difference between this "choice of Hercules" and the Christian concept of "conversion" has often been pointed out, but, as the distinction will prove useful in my subsequent discussion, I must mention it here. Hercules did not have to turn around and go back. Nothing is implied of the error of his past ways, for the choice that he made concerned only his future path. He was like the conventional adventurer of old-fashioned stories, who, at the meeting of the ways, was supposed to take that road which seemed to lead toward a distant church spire. A man, on the other hand, who "experiences conversion," stops going to hell and starts going to heaven,—a right-about-face of the most uncompromising and absolute sort. His act is a recognition of a change of mind, expressed by a similar change in the direction of his progress.

Similarly, in modern America, almost any person who sets out to acquire an education is bound sooner or later to experience, not a choice of Hercules, but a radical conversion of the soul. This

is not necessary in the nature of the case; it is only the natural result of a certain almost continent-wide idea which has power among us. There are of course advocates of education without such a strenuous prerequisite, just as there have been sundry moral Franklins in religion, but we always feel that these people are talking about something else; for it is largely a matter of the meaning of words. After all, morality is not religion, though the two are closely related; and professional or vocational training is not education. I do not speak in disparagement of such training, but only call attention to a proper and necessary distinction. Some theorists try to make of education a sort of intellectual jitney system which offers to take its passengers anywhere they desire to go, as if the goal of the trip were a matter of indifference. But the road to culture, like the path that Bunyan's footsore hero followed to its end, goes in only one direction, and has one fixed destination for all who walk therein. When we turn from the petty Meccas toward which most of the travelers now are making, and fix our eyes upon that distant goal, the act is a typical conversion, and not a choice of Hercules.

A few questions will reduce these matters to a concrete form. Just what is this discrepancy of aims? Exactly what will be included in this change, which we may term intellectual conversion? I call attention first to the more material issues, and shall proceed finally to the ultimate ideas and ideals, intangible and difficult to the uninitiated, but forming always the bed-rock of culture and the criterion of education. All men, however, who have even the most rudimentary conception of the vast traditional and cumulative heritage of human culture, need not be reminded that this blessing comes first to each individual learner, not as an organic unit, having an indubitable significance and character of its own, but as an array of facts only imperfectly related to his past life, to each other, and to that universal science into which, he is given to understand, they are meant to be an introduction. It takes years of rather blind and wandering labor before that inchoate mass of facts begins to assume form and individuality.

Meanwhile the inexperienced youth too often falls a prey to the wild and whirling words of those whose heads have been turned by the strong wine of a little knowledge. There are many such in this country, where the accepted educational ideal is a reasonable minimum of schooling for everybody. Men without a vision of the unity of knowledge regard the facts that may be learned in school much as materialistic and blunted natures have for centuries regarded the ancient ruins in Italy. Those marbles, which to the archeologist or to the artist are a part of the intricate and various language of universal culture, seem to the ungifted, untrained perception no more than a quarry of good material ready-cut to the hand of the builder. One can make a very snug little villa out of such stones. Thus persons of the same temperament learn and use all the facts which a liberal education so unreservedly lavishes upon us. "Take what is useful," they advise the aspiring student. "Take *only* what is useful." Every generous and true nature, if unwarped by these insidious influences, will reach out for all. It is the universal law of intellect gravitating to its own. Then to grasp, to mold, to assemble in a rational order,—such is the function of every whole and healthy human mind. Its success in this function is the measure of its ultimate worth to man. A Plato or an Aristotle, a St. Thomas or a Roger Bacon, will repay the world for whole generations of thwarted potential intellects which continually drag themselves, dull, stiff, and dying, over the ground. But the beginner, born and reared in a low and crude materialism, knows nothing of all this, save as he may vaguely read it in that dim writing on the wall of his soul, which most human beings never decipher. He is even taught to turn all high and noble things to some incidental and trifling but immediate use.

I suspect that right in this word *immediate* lies most of the harm. A brief excursion into its significance discovers much, not only concerning the problem of knowledge, but also concerning that closely kindred enigma, the problem of evil. It does not make much difference whether we consider happiness or something

else as the goal of life, the end of knowledge, if we will only place either one of them far enough from us. The curse of man is to have attained. Things that have a scope beyond us enlarge and ennoble our lives. Whenever we completely and finally grasp what we set out for, we are sure to be disappointed. If you must take use for your ideal, fix upon some far distant use that will never ripen in your day, or in the time of any whom you know. That is the soul's nobility. It is what makes the man of pure science a greater man than the mere inventor. It is what makes Christian ethics the highest moral philosophy. The same preference for remoteness instead of immediacy applies also to action. The shallow maxim, "Do it now," is the devil's own advice. Reason, not impulse, should govern a rational being; and reason takes time. All that, however, is in another field, into which I may only glimpse here, since it is the borderland; as it were, the suburb of thought. Enough, then, that this matter of remoteness is so consistently characteristic of the greatest intellectual interests that it may almost be regarded as a sufficient criterion to distinguish the gold of education from the baser metals of mere training.

It stands to reason that immediacy is undesirable only in so far as it is associated with some more fundamental principle of weakness. It is just possible that the very crux of any matter lies directly in our path; and if it does, we need not avoid it. But we must never forget that our deepest lives lie beyond the limits of time and space, for the intellect is timeless, subtle, and pervasive; we build with our ancient marbles, but the structures that we rear are the vast unfinshed cathedrals of the soul. The design is an old, conventional one; as we watch the progress of our own work, we can tell beforehand how it will expand, ever higher, ever vaster, while the soul lives and learns; but the ultimate perfection of those dim aisles and cloud-capped domes no human mind has ever known. We learn to see each new fact as a part of the great design. Nothing comes by chance, or out of its due order. And all this time, we feel that ours is no

flimsy castle of the imagination; but as the archeologist, from the marbles he has found, reconstructs those parts of a great work of architecture which are lost, or are yet to be discovered, so we feel that we too are only rediscovering a pre-existent plan. Like the man of science, we are confirmed in this conviction by the power we sometimes have of telling beforehand with precision how the lines will lie. It is to this, then, that our learning serves; and it is not for application here and now. When we realize the very truth of that fact, and when we have turned our backs upon every other goal in learning, we have experienced what I choose to call an "intellectual conversion."

Needless to say, this conception, though forever present to an esoteric few, never will become generally popular. We all know the common theories. One of them holds that education is for the state. Education trains intelligent citizens and potential leaders, making possible a just and enlightened government. In a democratic country, we are told, a high level of popular education is especially necessary. This theory is the more dangerous for the truth there is in it; even Plato would seem to be of the same way of thinking. A deeper study of Plato, however, leads to the conclusion that in his opinion the state itself exists only to train and exercise the individual soul. That is a typically rational interpretation of the interrelation and correspondences of the education and the state. If the mind of man is prior, with the state as a sort of auxiliary or adjunct to it, then the state may reasonably be entirely absorbed in the interests of its citizens, but no individual member of the state may in any wise be considered as dedicated unreservedly to its welfare. From the large resources of men the state may take its share; it may in certain cases appropriate to itself time, energy, even life,—but there exists a limit to its rights. The integrity of his soul is each man's own inalienable possession and responsibility; and when the state exercises its constraint in that private domain, we call it tyranny. Yet, on the other hand, the supreme duty of all government is to foster and protect that very element in its citizens which is least subject

to its control. The money which runs into the channels of education runs back again in dams, railways, hospitals, factories, tangible commodities; education is recognized as a good investment, to be fostered on purely business principles. There is no merit in that sort of thing, unless a shrewd sense for self-interest be accounted a merit. In the whole matter, one general spiritual principle seems to hold: the sooner the money comes back, the less good it has done. Remember that the state exists for the individual, that applicability and immediacy of knowledge are generally criteria of its worthlessness, that the training of a soul and not the construction of a dam is the end in education and life; remember these things, and you will see that education is not for the state, save, of course, incidentally.

Neither is education a mere luxury for the individual. The eighteenth century ideal of the "gentleman," and the modern foolish sentiment regarding the equally futile "college bred man" are alike shallow. They regard knowledge as an ornament, valuable, doubtless, for its becoming grace and incidental utility in enhancing one's figure before the eyes of the world. Such an attitude is too despicable to require further consideration. Somewhat more estimable is the notion that four years of fun, making good friends, and strengthening the body with wholesome athletics, may doubtless be worth while for those who can afford it. Such an attitude is at least more likely to be frank and unsophisticated. There is something unwholesome about a man who learns Greek in order to show off, whereas one who plays football for the same purpose does not necessarily place himself beyond the range of natural sympathies. Every honest mind will, however, deprecate the practice of placing intellectual considerations in a secondary position. It is a practice which has in it the beginnings of all evil, just as apparently inconsequential disregard for rightful authority involves the seeds of anarchy. At boyish exhuberance, we may, perhaps, guardedly wink; mature and systematic encouragement of folly we can in no wise tolerate.

The vocational ideal as an end in training ought, if rightly

pursued, to prove at once wholesome for students and beneficial to the state. I have no quarrel with such training unless it is foisted upon individual students who could profit by more liberal culture. As a pathway open to youth of comparatively low ability or mean aims vocational training may serve for a safety-valve to society, directing dangerous energies into useful channels. Through the right play of hand and brain it may teach a wisdom some can never learn from books. Unless, however, our mental tests shall succeed in distinguishing with more precision the demarcations of potential intelligence in children, one would be loath to recommend the beginning of vocational work among the younger pupils. It is a dreadful thing, just for the sake of adding a year or so to the career of a carpenter, to tempt with a low ideal some mind that might respond to a higher one. Vocational training is not, however, hostile to real education, but may, as I have suggested, effectively supplement it. It is for the many; a liberal education is for the few. Numbers and dollars have nothing to do with the intrinsic value of either system; but society receives a certain benefit from each. Let vocational training lapse, and the country is impoverished; let liberal educatioal suffer,—we are materialized. The latter is incomparably the greater danger.

Since, then, the good of the state, the selfish pleasure of the individual, and the economic advantage of both individual and society (for such is the obvious good result of vocational training) must all be condemned as goals for education, what shall we propose as the benefit to be desired and worked for?

We shall, in the first place, seek a good of the highest order, which will accrue to all men in great intensity through long duration. It will be a fruitful good, of humble, mustard-seed origin, perhaps, but flowering eventually in universal beneficence of influence. It will be an intellectual good, for no other can possess these characteristics in such intensity and universality. We cannot conceive the newness, the ingenious intellectual subtlety, or the pervasive significance of such a boon to posterity. The very fact that we can never realize it till it comes, only illustrates the

unique and precious qualities of mind which must trace these undiscovered paths of the future. Before the great ideas are born among us, who can imagine them—a *Divine Comedy*, a heliocentric astronomy, or a transcendental philosophy? Once they are here, who can think without them? Such spiritual gifts to mankind, in the wholeness and unity of their effect form the symbol of human greatness, the evidence of universal progress, and the most worthy argument for the doctrine of the soul's immortality.

Ideas of this sort are an end in themselves; or, at all events, they enter so subtly into the texture of human thought that they seem to lose their identity, working where their presence is least suspected. They lose their identity, too, in the vast superstructure of universal culture, which like an unfinished cathedral, forms at once for all man's thought the sanctuary, the atelier, and the mausoleum. With only a distant and tenuous bond to meaner human affairs, these intellectual domes and spires seem afloat in the very sky. The meaner sort of men, seeing them there dim and lofty, shrug their shoulders, and vaguely speculate as to whether such phenomena are really a part of mundane human life. The architects know well enough that those solid stones have not kept firm for centuries upon their airy seats, without sound upbuilding, inch on inch, by slow degrees from the bed rock far below. And what shall we say of the use of this? A poor and futile question! "What is the use of a new-born baby?" asked Benjamin Franklin. What is the use of labor, of pleasure, of beauty, of life itself, of death? Or, to put it all in one question, what is the use of man? If man is of no use, then all that he does is in vain. But if man's development is significant to the cosmic progress or to cosmic status, then this great ensemble of his spiritual achievement must stand, the epitome of terrestrial fruition through the several human millenniums.

But mankind as a whole, and the culture said to pertain to any race or age of men, though common and convenient concepts, seem to have little substantiality if regarded as facts. What then, we may ask, may all this mean to any one man? We think immedi-

ately of several obvious negative implications. It certainly does not mean that knowledge is to be acquired for personal and immediate use. On the other hand, our knowledge, if the ideas I have advanced are true, is assuredly meant to be no mere furniture, ornament, or other incidental trapping of the soul. It is, rather, the food of the intellect; promoting mental growth and development; inducing a more than gustatory delight; and bringing in its train spiritual health or morbid disease of the mind. This figure suggests a science of intellectual dietetics, with all its possible measurements of calories and vitamin. The specific articles of diet would not, I imagine, greatly differ from the food our sundry alma maters used to serve, though we might test and weigh it more critically and use new names for the old ingredients. Certain requirements we should doubtless make, much as we regulate the milk supply. Going upon the general principle that knowledge is a unit in itself, a mass, of which we and our immediate interests are not the center, we should require that all facts be taught in such a way as to bring out a real and not an adventitious idea of their relative significance and interrelations. Thus we should free ourselves from the Ptolemaic astronomy of the soul. Another test which we should be glad to apply to all the intellectual food of the schools depends similarly upon the important concept of the unity of knowledge. I refer to the baffling partiality induced by those rigid forms of our thought, space and time. Without these concepts, of course, we could not think at all; but we might learn to find the common strains in all things through every age, tracing thus the unity which alone can make harmony and peace. With these two "tests" for guides, we could tell what qualities would have to be outlawed or only guardedly allowed,—when Pasteurized, as it were. Such qualities as nearness, recentness, and applicability would be looked upon with a severely suspicious eye, as potential poisons of awful virulence; for these qualities tend to develop partial and detached views, destroying the perception of unity (which Boethius claims is mental health) and dislodging the body of knowledge from its true center. These

are only a few broken hints of the new pseudo-science of intellectual or epistemological dietetics. You will see that, like most new things in psychology, it is only a different way of saying "what everybody knew beforehand anyhow."

But, to return more seriously to the question of education, we must ask if it is practical that some people should devote themselves to these extensive researches and other-worldly syntheses, while the bulk of humanity struggles along with potatoes, automobiles, radio, and dollars and cents. Are we not flying apart by encouraging such divergencies of interests? Does not the stability of social organization depend upon a certain homogeniousness and sympathy of opinion? Then too, an economic question is involved. In a free country, of course, those who can afford to do harmless things are not likely to be prevented; but to what extent will a materialistic government find itself at all disposed to finance a cause for which there is no popular demand? When the young graduate finds, like the hero of *David Harum,* not a dollar in all his training, how is he to maintain an economic independence, unless he becomes a teacher, turning out still more incompetents like himself? Would it be wise for our government to finance such a proposition on a large scale?

The answer to all these questions is implied in one fundamental consideration. If a government or any social institution depends for its stability and efficiency upon a partial view of truth, a biased understanding, and warped sympathies; then it will be the wisest course for that institution, or whatever it may be, to consider its own condition with a view to some swift but gently efficacious remedy. The glory of a state is the healthy and vigorous minds of its citizens. The general level of intelligence is kept tolerably high only by the "saving remnant" of broadly developed minds. The latter, moreover, do not entirely and ineffectively separate themselves from human sympathies, but enter as leaven into the intellectual conglomerate of a nation. As for economic questions, they are hardly important in this matter. A government can well afford to invest money in the liberal education of

its citizens, just as it can afford to train engineers or farmers. Somehow, it pays in financial returns, though one has no right to ask that it should pay. The world's great thinkers have, by and large, enriched mankind in a direct, pecuniary way, even more than have the great mass of men who were only vocationally trained. Neither will men liberally educated be likely to trouble the world with excess of pauperism, though some of them will never be rich. The high intelligence necessary to the achievement of such eminence as theirs is comparatively seldom consistent with the sort of incapacity which makes a man economically dependent. That, of course, is a matter of statistics and of reason, though celebrated exceptions may be urged to the contrary. Not only is a liberally educated man likely to overcome handicaps by means of his superior intelligence, but he often finds that information acquired with no view to practical use proves upon occasion quite valuable. These incidental values are not seldom greater than those which a materialistic man strives all his life to gain. But if there are a few paupers in the long lists of cultured men, who can grudge them the crust they ask? Humble, serviceable, the men of culture take their place unobstrusively in the economic world. They ask little and contribute more than a little. Listlessly, but honestly for the most part, they render unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's. No, an even partially enlightened government can hardly be excused if it neglects this matter of strictly liberal education. Like the individual student, a government too must be converted.

What High School Students Like to Read

H. T. Eaton, Syracuse, N. Y.

DURING the past year the writer became interested in the question: "What do high school pupils *like* to read?" In order to secure some information upon this problem 176 third and fourth year pupils (87 boys and 89 girls) in Central High School, Syracuse, New York, were asked to answer the following questionaire:

I. Do you do any reading outside of that required by your school work?

II. If so, estimate how many books you read each year. Also give an estimate for each of the following classes: 1, Fiction; 2, Short stories; 3, Essays and books of travel; 4, Poetry; 5, History; 6, Biography; 7, Science; 8, Religion.

III. Do you read the newspapers regularly? Local papers? Outside papers?

IV. Name several of your favorite authors.

V. What magazines, if any, do you read?

The students were urged to give the facts without exaggeration or mistatement and were informed that the information secured was not to be used in any way connected with their school work. By checking the results obtained by means of the knowledge gained from a perusual of several thousand book reports, the writer is inclined to believe that the replies were fairly accurate. The questionaire method has its obvious disadvantages, yet how is it possible to learn what a person likes unless he is consulted in the matter? Libraries could furnish the information, but it would require a vast amount of added clerical work to get at all the facts although certain information (as, for example, the popular classes of books, the popular authors etc.) is easily ascertained.

One hundred percent of the students questioned claimed that they did voluntary reading of some sort or another. 100% of

the boys and 98% of the girls read books; 100% of the boys and 98% of the girls read magazines; while 85% of the boys and 83% of the girls read daily newspapers. The amount of reading done varied enormously in individual cases, some reading less than five books a year while others read from two to three hundred. The writer was interested to note that some of the poorest students did the most reading. The better students read more conservatively and seldom exceeded the limit of fifty books per year. Fiction was naturally the most popular and the great bulk of all the reading was found to come under that head. The table given below shows the general popularity of the various types mentioned in the questionaire.

1. Fiction	Boys	100%	Girls	98%
2. Short stories	"	72%	"	88%
3. Essays and books of travel	"	51%	"	34%
4. Poetry	"	38%	"	63%
5. History	"	40%	"	26%
6. Biography	"	54%	"	58%
7. Science	"	51%	"	9%
8. Religion	"	26%	"	42%

Twenty percent of the boys and twenty-six percent of the girls read over fifty books a year, most of them fiction. In fact all through the study, the fact was clearly demonstrated that the lion's share of reading went to fiction. It is a fair estimate to say that a person reading fifty books a year, read at least thirty in fiction. Outside of fiction and short stories (the latter class merely a convenient classification of a particular type of fiction) the amount of reading done was very conservative,—ten to fifteen books to be divided among the other six classes would be a fairly accurate estimate. The most common answer to the question regarding class eight, Religion, was, "I read the Bible during the year."

It should also be noted that there are differences between the reading of the boys and that of the girls; the former reading more

History, Science, Essays and books of travel; the latter more poetry and religion.

As has been already noted, 85% of the boys and 83% of the girls read the daily papers regularly. Of this number 20% of the boys and 25% of the girls read an outside paper as well.

Magazine reading seems to be popular with both sexes but as can be seen by the lists given below tastes differ,—the girls preferring the so-called Women's Magazines; the boys reading a more miscellaneous group with some emphasis upon science and invention. The average number of magazines read by the boys is three; that of the girls, four. Of the four read the girl would generally select one Woman's magazine, one magazine of styles and fashions, one general magazine and one magazine of the type of the Literary Digest. Ninety-five magazines were mentioned by the boys 87 by the girls.

Composite List (Mentioned by both Boys and Girls)

1. Literary Digest	read	by	53%
2. American Magazine	"	"	50%
3. Sat. Evening Post	"	"	47%
4. Ladies Home Journal	"	"	27%
5. National Geographic	"	"	21%

Boy's List.

1. Saturday Evening Post	"	"	56%
2. Literary Digest	"	"	54%
3. American Magazine	"	"	46%
4. National Geographic	"	"	23%
5. American Boy	"	"	26%
6. Popular Mechanics	"	"	18%
(All Scientific Magazines)	"	"	38%

Girl's List.

1. American Magazine	"	"	55%
2. Literary Digest	"	"	53%
3. Ladies' Home Journal	"	"	43%
4. Saturday Evening Post	"	"	39%
5. Woman's Home Companion	"	"	29%
6. Red Book and Cosmopolitan (each)	"	"	25%

When we come to the question of favorite authors, we again find a large difference of opinion, for individual taste again appears rather strikingly. The girls mentioned 128 different authors while the boys offered 107 different names. Many of the authors suggested were popular with but two or three of the group and some names were the choice of a single individual. The taste of the girls differed from that of the boys as the following will clearly demonstrate.

Composite List of Favorite Authors (Boys and Girls).

1. Zane Grey	selected	by	39 %
2. Harold Bell Wright	"	"	19 %
3. Sir Arthur Conan Doyle	"	"	17.5%
4. Jean Stratton Porter	"	"	17 %
5. Robert L. Stevenson	"	"	15 %
Mary R. Rinehart	"	"	15 %
6. Joseph Lincoln	"	"	13 %
7. Charles Dickens	"	"	12.5%
Mark Twain	"	"	12.5%
Booth Tarkington	"	"	12.5%
8. Rudyard Kipling	"	"	11 %
9. James Oliver Curwood	"	"	9 %

Boy's List of Favorite Authors.

1. Zane Grey	selected	by	45%
2. Sir Arthur Conan Doyle	"	"	25%
3. Robert Louis Stevenson	"	"	18%
4. Rudyard Kipling	"	"	17%
5. Mark Twain	"	"	15%
6. James Oliver Curwood	"	"	14%
7. Harold Bell Wright	"	"	12%
8. Joseph Lincoln	"	"	11%
9. Booth Tarkington	"	"	10%
10. Robert Service	"	"	9%
Edgar Allen Poe	"	"	9%

GIRL'S LIST OF FAVORITE AUTHORS.

1. Zane Grey	selected	by	32%
Jean S. Porter	"	"	32%
2. Harold Bell Wright	"	"	25%
3. Mary R. Rinehart	"	"	24%
4. Charles Dickens	"	"	18%
5. Joseph Lincoln	"	"	14%
Booth Tarkington	"	"	14%
6. L. M. Alcott	"	"	13%
7. Robert Louis Stevenson	"	"	11%
8. Grace Richmond	"	"	11%
9. Mark Twain	"	"	10%
Sir Arthur Conan Doyle	"	"	10%
K. Norris	"	"	10%

It is not safe to generalize from insufficient evidence but, at the same time, it seems perfectly legitimate to point out the salient points of the study made. Three facts seem to stand out above the rest:—1, All of the pupils did some reading and some of them read entirely too much; 2, Sex seemed to have an important influence in the selection of the material which was read; and 3, Certain great individual differences in taste were shown as well as type interests.

The choice of the hundred-and-seventy-six students would seem, on the whole, to be both sound and healthy. When one attempts to supervise the reading of pupils it is not out of place to consider their individual likes and dislikes as well as their general tastes. Again, it would seem from the particular study made that proper supervision must sometimes discourage rather than encourage the amount of reading. Certainly if reading interferes seriously with school work, then it is not too much to advise strongly that the former be lessened drastically. Three hundred books a year is undoubtedly too much reading for the Junior or Senior in High school. It is trite to remark that supervision is valueless unless it is productive of results. If pupils are to be guided in their

reading, they should be lead gently by some kind of a sampling process. By this the writer means that samples of the work of authors suitable to adolescent minds should be given to the pupils,—either by suggestion or by reading a selection during some class period. Nothing is more fatal than for a teacher to attempt to force her personal tastes upon the students in her charge. Any attempt to guide the selection of the pupil must take *him* into consideration. Because the teacher is filled with enthusiasm over the poetry of Milton and Browning is no sign that the students will become similiarly enthusiastic. Too often the aim in guiding (or more exactly in attempting to guide) the reading tastes of the high school student is so high that it over-reaches itself and accomplishes nothing. The definition, "a classic is a book which everybody praises and nobody reads" ought to provoke a little serious thought.

A Wish

I wish you the way
To sweet Christmas Cheer,
That dwells in the Palace of Love.
There holly is gay,
And on Old Christmas Day
All the bells in the great palace ring-ring-ring,
All the bells in the grand palace sing:
Merry Christmas to you!
Good friends, tried and true,
Merry Christmas, Glad Christmas, to you!

MINNIE E. HAYS.

Pre-vocational Projects in Geography

Olive Nolan, Parkman Pre-vocational School,
South Boston.

WE use the same course of study that is used in the academic Junior High School, but while the covering of the outline is the only requirement in those schools, *we* must do that, of course, but we must have it so closely correlated with the shop work, so motivated by the shop work, that while the boys *might* go on in their work without learning the how's and why's and where's of the materials with which they work, they are not *willing* to go on without knowing:—they want to know.

As the boys make their tools from the various kinds of steel, we started our year's geography with the study of iron, which naturally included the study of coal, limestone and steel. The study of limestone brought in some very interesting work on limestone caves. I believe in bringing in all those interesting, picturesque side issues because they hold the interest.

We confined our intensive study of iron to the United States, using England, Sweden and other countries for comparison chiefly; always finding those "comparative scales" in the back of the book of great assistance. We studied all the coal and iron regions of the United States and made maps of them, which I believe to be a very good way of fixing locations in mind.

They collected all kinds of iron: cast iron, pig iron, wrought iron etc.; all kinds of coal from lignite to anthracite, and so many varieties of steel that our exhibition table became crowded. Some of the specimens began to grow rusty, which gave us an excellent opportunity for developing the idea of tin and nickel-plating.

We dwelt a short time on the Ontario nickel mines and on the English and Malay tin mines, here. During our study of iron, we invited ourselves twice to the main building for stereopticon

views. They used still pictures but they gave us some fine ideas about mining, smelting and especially about transportation. The Great Lakes, of course, loomed large here, so we studied a little about their origin and a great deal about their commercial value.

It took my boys a little time to decide for themselves why it was better to ship iron from Superior than to ship coal to it. Nearly every boy could see immediately why iron manufacturing cities had sprung up along the lakes and why lake steamers were built at Cleveland while farm implements were made in and near Chicago.

The great advantage of having coal, iron, and limestone found near together as in Pittsburg and Birmingham was readily sensed by all. Transportation as a factor in commerce showed them why only small articles of metal (as a rule) are manufactured in New England, and the huge, bulky things along the lake shores.

These boys could reason well, but perhaps could not express their thoughts as glibly as some of their classmates in those other schools. Perhaps they did not want to. Evidently, many of them had not been encouraged to do so.

They could do it and they did do it, when they had a motive which they sensed, *i. e.* a desire for an intelligent understanding of the materials with which they worked and fashioned many useful and necessary articles in their machine shop. Incidentally, of course, the making of coke came in here and its importance as a by-product. The study of forging came in, too, which brought up the discussion of the old time smelting and forging by the use of charcoal.

It would be easy to write a long paper on their study of coal and iron alone; but I would like to touch on some of the other projects. The boys oiled their machines before using, while in use and after using. They also used oil on their cutting tools. They knew that this was to prevent heating by friction, which brought in a little science, but in no way trespassed on geography; as we do not teach geography in a vacuum; but connected as closely as possible with life—their lives. This was our chance to teach

oil and oil regions, which, to be sure, had been mentioned in connection with our study of coal and iron regions. Many pupils were greatly surprised to realize that gasoline, kerosene and vaseline all came from petroleum.

They read everything they could find about its history and were delighted with the stories of men selling their farms because the cattle would not drink the "polluted" water, only to realize that the buyer became a rich man from his oil wells which had polluted the water. The mention of its use first as a medicine reminded them of the fact that their grandmothers had believed kerosene to be a remedy for many things. The boys wrote to the Standard Oil Company for one of their exhibits of oil, which, when received, gave an added impetus to their work.

The shop instructor showed them which kind of oil was generally used on the machines and explained why. He explained the reason for using vegetable oils and animal oils on cutting tools. He said that these topics had never before been brought to his notice. He assured us that all this work helped, not hindered, the boys' shop work; so everything seemed to be going in the right way. By no means were coal or oil closed chapters. The boys were constantly bringing in clippings about them and we often had current events talks on them or based new lessons on them.

In the making of each tool, we found a wealth of history and geography material. For instance, while making hammers as a shop project, we traced the history of the hammer from pre-historic ages to 1922, for an academic project. The history of the hammer was influenced greatly by the geography of the countries; their resources and their people. The cave men had no knowledge of metals, their hammer was first a stone, then a stone with a rude handle. Later, copper was used through the early historic years, until finally civilized man learned to smelt iron so we had iron hammers—so on down to the fine, polished, steel tool of today.

Somebody brought in a large picture of various tools found in excavated Pompeii. We studied Italy right then and there—

that is, as much as was necessary to satisfy them until we were ready for a more thorough study. However, I believe that it was right to study the region around Mt. Vesuvius and Naples right then instead of waiting until "we came to that page."

I believe that by our study of Italy when they wanted to know about it, they learned more about her lack of minerals, for instance, than if I had waited for a scheduled day; but what is far more important, I think the study of that region now as compared with same region in 27 B. C. opened their eyes to Italy's place in history, in art, in music, and in the world; and gave them greater respect for the Italians and a better understanding of the fine things for which Italy has for years been noted.

When they were making scribers in the shop, we traced back the name to the Latin "scribo—to write" and a "scribe—a Jewish clerk." Perhaps that was English, not geography, but it is one way to teach them about other lands and other people and our relations with them, in fact, our dependence on them; and so obviate if possible some of that, "I am better than thou because I was born in America" spirit which I have seen. Mayhap, that is civics, not geography—but should they not correlate? I believe that they should.

My boys made nut-crackers and picks as Christmas gifts for each teacher in the district. What has that to do with geography? A great deal! We found and located all the countries that produced nuts in quantity. We studied irrigation in connection with the almond and other nut-growing regions of California. We studied about the people who make meal out of nuts. We found that nothing save palm-nuts will produce the kind of smoke desired by the rubber-curers in Brazil. We made a collection of nuts and found that peanuts were an important article of commerce. We sent for a peanut butter exhibit and found how and where peanuts were planted, how harvested, manufactured, etc. and again touched on the commercial value of vegetable oils.

As is to be expected, our projects often led us out of the beaten track but we decided that was where adventure lay. One might

wonder why nut-crackers took us to Turkey. These utensils had to be polished with emery cloth. The study of emery, emery wheels, emery cloth and emery paper took us to Asia Minor and especially to Turkey for emery. Time would not permit us to study this region at all carefully, but, by the aid of steamship folders and Chamber of Commerce material, we found the routes and the exchange cargoes from the United States to these parts in the near East.

As a project in wrought iron work, the boys made an electric floor lamp. This gave rise to the study of light and the progress that man with his increased knowledge of materials and skill in using them has made in lighting his home. We studied the torch, the candle, the kerosene lamp, (reviewing oil) gas and the electric bulb; the last being the only one not having a flame of some kind. The wiring of the lamp and the adjustments of the brass fixtures necessitated our studying copper which had been mentioned several times in our study of the Great Lakes. The lamp shade was of silk, so we studied silk, using all the exhibits of silk and all the books on silk. Italy and France were taken up again, China and Japan were studied just for silk, and our own silk manufacturing cities were studied rather carefully.

The boys had frequently spoken of the cotton waste that they used constantly in the shop, so we introduced our work on cotton here. The boys had been to the textile show so had very good ideas of the manufacturing processes of cotton and wool. Wool seemed to fit in here, as cotton and woolen goods are so often manufactured in the same mill. Anyway, the cotton and wool study was rather a review of the previous year's work, so they could locate Egypt and India and compare their cotton production with that of our Southern States. The comparison of the textile industry of old England with that of New England made a very interesting study.

England's monopoly of Australia's and New Zealand's wool, and the struggle for trade supremacy in Argentina between English and German merchants seemed a little more advanced way of

taking up the wool problems of those countries and gave them a new angle of thought about the matter. The study of the wool production of our Western States and its subsequent manufacture in New England, and likewise the manufacture here of southern produced cotton occurred to them later in history and explained in a great measure the ever recurring tariff conflict in our country. That, certainly is a geographic influence on history.

As the boys repeatedly mentioned linen in studying the other fabrics, we started our study of linen. This proved to be the most interesting of the textile studies. We received an excellent exhibit of flax which the boys gladly mounted. Through the courtesy of the "linen man" in Whitney's, we received some splendid material about linen.

Silk and linen may seem a far cry from grimy-faced, calloused-handed boys in a machine shop but *they* are the stuff of which our democracy is made, and on their knowledge of all these commodities and materials depends, in large measure, the making of sane laws for tariffs, for capital and labor and for all those grave questions that are perplexing us all today.

On their appreciation of and love for the fine and the beautiful in life depend, perhaps, our hopes of a higher civilization.

Old Age

The years go softly, and they go so soon,
  We little think of them until, some day,
We talk November though our thought is June,
  And feel December though our hearts are May!

ARTHUR WALLACE PEACH.

Literature in Everyday Life

E. A. Cross, Dean State Teachers College,
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WHEN a man builds a power plant, he consults a trained engineer. When a woman projects an evening gown, she seeks advice and instruction from a modiste, if that is the proper term to apply to the engineer who designs clothes. How strange it is that so few young people who are planning their lives consult the men and women who make the study of life itself their specialty—human engineers! For a moment imagine an almost unheard-of situation. Suppose a student should come to me, assuming that, as a teacher of literature, I could qualify as an expert in the art of living, since the business of literature is mainly the interpretation, clarification, analysis, illumination, elucidation of human life. Suppose this hypothetical inquiring youngster should pay me the compliment of believing that I had acquired some insight into the meaning of life and should consult me in the same good faith that his father manifests when he consults a mechanical engineer about the power plant, or his mother exhibits when she asks an architect about a proposed addition to her house, or when she advises with a skilled physician concerning her daughter's health.

Being an American youth of the twentieth century, the young man addresses me in the language of his class and his age. He says: "Say, listen, professor. You know I never expect to teach literature—or anything. At the end of my college course I shall probably be farmer, a grocer, or a lawyer; a butcher, a baker, or a candlestick maker." He names his choice. "I'm planning my college course ahead, see; not just falling into it semester by semester by accident, as it were." To save me I can't imagine where he absorbed "as it were;" but there it is, his own phrase,

so let him have it. "I've already consulted a chemist, a historian a shop instructor or two, and some others, each about his work; and now I come to you. I want to know what there is in literature that will help me in my trade, or calling, or profession, whichever it may be,—what there is that will help me to become a well-informed gentleman—you know what I mean,—and how I can go about it to get the most out of literature in the least time."

The compliment of being considered an expert even by a single student flatters me. I take myself seriously and try to tell this inquirer, whose desire is simply to become a good citizen, refined and cultured, what literature can contribute to his life and how he may go about levying upon its contribution.

"George," I say, (I might just as well be talking to his sister Maude. The principles I am laying down apply as well to a young woman as to a young man.) "George," I say, "I know what you want. The answer is simple, but I can't get at it until I feel quite sure you understand some preceding complex matters."

A resigned look comes over George's face which says: "Just like a confounded Professor. Always has to take a turn around Robin Hood's barn before he can make the jump and land anywhere. Sorry now I asked you. But go to it. I can't escape."

All that follows here is what I might say to George (or Maude) under these imaginary, but unheard-of circumstances. The reader may imagine himself for a half hour to be George or Maude.

In the first place, (you see I begin very deliberately and logically), I must make it clear to you that the education you are getting in school or college is not your complete over-seas outfit—not all you are going to need for the whole voyage of your life. At the best the college is able to supply you only with samples of the goods which in your life will become your complete stock. Education is like a traveling salesman who shows you samples of the things which make up a complete stock somewhere in reserve. Education shows you where and how to acquire the intellectual goods you will need in your business and also gives you some practice through which you may attain to a reasonable skill in

handling the materials. That is all. Suppose you are going to be a manufacturing chemist. Do you expect to learn in school every manipulation, every operation, every combination that you will ever use as a chemical engineer? No, certainly not. You expect to learn the principles of chemistry, the mathematics of chemistry, and to acquire a reasonable degree of skill in handling chemical materials.

Literature is just like that. I hope you do not expect to read in college all the poems, essays, dramas, stories, and novels you will ever read. If you go into the study of literature wisely, you will first learn to speak well and to write with a certain degree of precision and ease, so that you may have at least a comfortable assurance that you are not misusing the English language and that you are able to get your ideas over to those who hear you speak or read your pages directly and clearly. This study of language may, of course, be carried along with the reading of literature. Each helps the other.

And now we come to literature. We are talking a good deal about utility in these times. Naturally you will ask whether literature serves any useful purpose, whether one who reads much sees any tangible results in the form of a larger pay check. I am not sure that literature pays in that way, but I am very confident that it pays in other and more significant ways. Utility is one yard stick for measuring values, but it is only one. I go so far as to say that it is fit only for rough estimates, and that real success is measured by finer instruments. The things that are materially useful and contribute to success upon the physical plane alone call for a training of the hand and a sharpening of the brain in school and college. Literature goes beyond hand and brain. Its searchings are deeper, its aspirations higher. Its appeal is first to the intellect and then to the imagination. The emotions respond not to the merely useful, but to the eternally true—the things which awaken the soul. These may be useful as well as true, but true first if they are to make any impression upon our souls. The education of our day is paying less attention to the

inspiration of literature than was given to this inspiration a generation or two ago. This is regrettable. Our students get a more diversified view of life and are trained to do more things, but it is doubtful whether we have any advantage today on the score of aspiration to be somebody and good for something than our grandfathers had. Our schools turn out more skilled hands, more disciplined brains, than did those of that earlier day, but it may be questioned whether they awaken as many spirits of light and leading.

You ask how the contribution of literature to life may be levied upon in the shortest time, in the most direct way. To me that is a less important question than how, in the long run, to lay hold upon literature and to make it yield its maximum contribution to a full, useful, thoughtful, meaningful, and happy life. But since you ask it in good faith, I shall give you first the minimum prescription and then advise you to go on with the reading of literature after you have gone out of your school or college and are living the life that these agencies were training you to live.

Assuming that you have already become a master of the technic of writing, such as is involved in the composition of an extended letter or business report and can do such writing so that it is simple, direct, and clear, and that you are able to get meaning from print speedily and accurately, I would advise you next to expose yourself to the influence of at least the range of literature that I am outlining in the two or three paragraphs which follow.

Instead of the traditional courses of reading which follow the development of literature in chronological fashion, I would have the student read some fine and interesting classic examples of narrative poetry, of epics, lyrics, essays, short stories, dramas, and novels, as many of these as are possible in the time set aside in the schools for the study of literature. The study of the history of literature, illustrated with extensive readings, some few interesting in themselves, but most of them the dry bones of the skeleton of our literary heritage, is well enough, necessary in fact, for those who intend to become graduate students, specialists in,

and later teachers of, literature; but such studies usually repel students from any further pursuit of literature. Students such as you, who do not expect to become graduate students in literature, but who merely wish to avail themselves of the refining and educative influences of literature, should learn to read in school the kinds of literature they will read, if they read at all, out of school. Nor should this be confined to the so-called classic pieces—those that have weathered the years and have survived. One large division of your literary studies should cover this ground, but you should go on from that level to the literature of the present.

To disparage current literature is merely pedantic affectation. Literature is never pure art divorced from thought. A justifiable aim in the study of classic literature must look to a cultivation of a taste for reading which will prompt the student to read the best that is being written in his own time; and so I should want the school course to include a study of all the types of literature that are now being produced—contemporary poetry, essays (including all the forms of magazine articles) short stories, dramas, and novels. It is my belief that no literature was ever more truly a reflection of the intellectual and emotional life of the people than is the best of what is being produced today.

When you ask me directly whether literature can contribute anything to a young man's success, or a young woman's, I say *yes*. And when you ask me whether literature is really a cultural and a refining agency, you not only get my assent but you also arouse my enthusiasm. I at once become an advocate. I want to present to you the cause of books—the sources of great ideas and worthy ideals, the makers of keen and capable minds as well as the inspiration of resonant souls with high purposes. I sieze the opportunity to exhibit for your examination some of the good things you can get out of literature, to point out to you some of the doors to which literature is a master key—in some instances the only key.

When I use the word *literature*, I do not mean all print—not even all good print. I mean only those compositions that make

their appeal both to the mind and the spirit—to the intellect, the imagination, and the emotions. In the sense in which I am using the term nothing is really literature unless it makes its impression upon all these three—intellect, imagination, and the emotions.

The first, but perhaps the least valuable, contribution which literature of this kind can make to your general education is in the widening of your range of thought and in giving you an adequate vocabulary to express your augmented ideas. This is a mere by-product of literature, but a by-product that contributes an appreciable amount to the total profit to be derived from reading. There are hundreds of rich words in my vocabulary that are there because of my reading the works of the masters of speech. I never use the word *effulgent* in speaking, but that word gives me a sensation of pleasure when I write it or see it in print. It is a rich word, full of meaning. The word *sonorous* makes a rolling music in my ears.

Names of people and places and things take on new and fuller meanings when they come to you accompanied by all their connotations and literary associations. Consider some family names. Who are the Fosters but the foresters on some ancient nobleman's estate or mayhap the merry men of Robin Hood's band in Sherwood. They might have been the "two misbegotten knaves in Kendel green" who set at the back of good Jack Falstaff. The Falkners of our day are descended from the keepers of the falcons who accompanied the noble huntsmen of days long gone. Even a simple, common noun like *paper* carries me back three thousand years to Egypt and calls to mind the papyrus reed from which the Egyptians made their books.

Without mutiplying illustrations I would call your attention to the fact that the richness of the meanings of words which depend upon their associations and upon the decorative fringes of connotation which they have acquired while rolling down the centuries all comes to you through your reading of literature.

Literature can bring you into friendly associations with

nature. If you desire to understand nature, you may, of course, "hold communion with her visible forms." But that is not enough. You are physically bound to a limited range; you have but one pair of eyes. But through well-written books you may come to know the meaning of things you see; you may touch nature in remote places; you may see with the eyes of all who have observed natural phenomena and living things. You may literally "take the wings of morning and pierce the Barkan wilderness, or lose thyself in the impenetrable woods where rolls the Oregon;" for others have been there and seen for you and written of what they saw, in words that fire the imagination and expand the soul. Thus with John Burroughs you may read "sermons in stones and books in the running brooks" of his Eastern home. With Thoreau you may meditate beside Walden Pond. With quaint Isaac Walton you may slip the leash of your city toil and follow the thought of the idealist who wrote the "Compleat Angler". You may penetrate the winterlands of Alaska or range the California mountains with John Muir. You may condense into a day's reading what was the work of years for Henry Fabre as he studied his ants and bees. You may see the Rocky Mountain Wonderlands with Enos Mills. You may join William Beebe and fare forth down his *Convict Trail* into the heart of the South American Jungle to find the giant armadillo, to watch the marvellously intelligent maneuvers of myriads of army ants, and at last light yourself back to camp with the great luminous beetle with its two magnificent head-lights and one red tail-light, looking in little for the world like the night trail of a racing automobile.

Your observation of human nature and your understanding of men and women—their acts, their motives, their thinking, their emotions—are limited to the few whom you may hope to know in your little time and place. Books remove barriers and hang up magic mirrors for you, and you see in human beings all about you multitudes of human traits which would have remained invisible if you had not had your eyes opened by these magicians. We

evaluate nobility and baseness, courage and cowardice, love and hate, all human characteristics and conduct only by comparison with these as we have seen them exemplified in actual people, or in the often more real people of printed books. You may never know many actual people in your lifetime—not more than a dozen or so—yourself and your sweetheart, the members of your family, and a few intimate friends. There is even some doubt about these. Plato commands you to "know thyself." That's quite a chore. "Oh, wad some power the giftie gie us, to see oursels as ithers see us," Damsel, your young man tries his best to let you know nothing of his worser parts. Young man, the maidens who pass for delicate dabchics or lovely kittens at sixteen sometimes, but rarely, let us hope, develop all the traits of full feathered old-hens or grownup cats before thirty-six. The militant suffragette swears that no man ever knows even his own wife.

Books reveal individuals as they are. We come to know them to the soul. We meet on terms of undimmed intimacy those who lived a thousand years ago, and those who never lived at all. I know Hamlet better than I know any one of my living friends, for a master psychologist has held up a magic mirror and enabled me to read Hamlet's soul. In the same way I know Ulysses and Job, Penelope and Helen, Lady Macbeth and Jeannie Deans, Amos and Paul, The Prodigal Son and Newman Noggs, Helena Richey and Mr. Britling. The circle of my acquaintanceship is narrowed neither by time nor place, nationality nor speech. You and I who read the great books of the world see the immortals face to face and not through a glass darkly. We possess the master key to the emotional nature of man.

If you have literature as your card of introduction, you may sit as a pupil at the feet of supermen; nay, even become their companion and intimate friend, and think their philosophies after them, compare their thoughts with yours, add your best to their best, and so contribute your share to the transformation of an evolving world. Homer and the Hebrew Phrophets, Milton, Shakespeare, Plato, Jesus of Nazareth, the Apostle John, Socrates,

Emanuel Kant, John Stuart Mill, Herbert Spencer, William James, and Josiah Royce welcome you to think through with them their wisdom and their philosophies.

Thus far I have dealt mainly with the intellectual side of literature. If there were no other side, if books touched our thinking alone, that one side would be of such importance that no man or woman could afford to neglect the cultivation and expansion of his mind which can come only through the reading of great books. But that is not all. One who speaks sober judgments gives it as his settled opinion that we do nine deeds at the dictate of our emotions as over against one for sober reasoning. If this is true, then nine tenths of a human being are emotional and only one tenth rational. If the whole nature is to be ministered to, the emotions must not be slighted. Just here we touch the realm of all the arts. All painting, all sculpture, all beauty of line and form and coloring, all rythm, all music, all seduction of movement and sound appeal to the emotional nature of man.

A certain few pieces of literature, but only a small part of the whole, are purely intellectual. These were made for the mind. Again there are pieces of literature which, like songs without words, awaken only the responses of the soul. They express a mood, or voice a longing, without a direct appeal to thought. Such we see in beautiful lyrics which, without making us think, induce in us a feeling of melancholoy, or adoration, or joy, or mirth, or exaltation, or despair. But the great pieces of emotional literature are made of both thought and feeling. Shelley's "Ode to the West Wind" will serve to illustrate. The poet feels his human limitations. He cannot do what he would like to do, say what he wants to say, make the world what it ought to be. In his passionate desire to sweep through the world and make it more beautiful, more admirable, better to live in, he contemplates the power and sweep of the west wind and wishes to be as free and strong as the tempest. He invokes the wind in a passionate supplication, and

at the last puts the full force of both his mind and heart into the closing stanza:

"Make me thy lyre, even as the forest is:
What if my leaves are falling like its own!
The tumult of thy mighty harmonies
Will take from both a deep autumnal tone,
Sweet, though in sadness. Be thou, Spirit fierce,
My spirit! Be thou me, impetuous one!
Drive my dead thoughts over the universe,
Like withered leaves, to quicken a new birth:
And, by the incantation of this verse,
Scatter, as from an unextinguished hearth
Ashes and sparks, my word among mankind!
Be through my lips to unawakened earth
The trumpet of a prophecy! O Wind,
If winter comes, can spring be far behind?"

Here are both thought and emotion. You will see the same thing in Macbeth's, "If it were done when 'tis done, then it were well it were done quickly;" or in Hamlet's famous soliloquy on self extinction, "To be or not to be, that is the question." Thus it is with the larger part of all really potent literature. The appeal is to two elements—the mind and spirit, head and heart. Can you who are training your *hands* to make a living for you neglect to train your intellects and your emotions to the end that they may help to make the game worth the candle—life worth the living.

It is through the emotional phases of literature that men and women are given power to explore the heights and plumb the depths of human experience. In the "Divine Comedy" Dante required the services of two spirits to guide him on his way—the spirit of the poet Virgil, one who had fathomed the deep places of human experience, to conduct him through the seven circles of the Inferno; and the Spirit of Purity and Light in the person of Beatrice, the beloved, to lead the way into Paradise. But literature, like music, is able alone, a single guide, to sound the

depths of human feelings and to ascend with her devotees into the exalted places. Blessed are they who know her ways. For them the fountain of tears shall be opened. They shall not suffer dry-eyed when sorrow comes. For them there shall be pity, pathos, love, indignation for wrongs done, righteous anger, just hatred, admiration, melancholy and exaltation, and even the saving ministry of laughter.

There is in song and story the means to voice every emotion. Suppressed emotions are like a slumbering volcano, held in subjection for a time—but bursting out in a withering blast in the end. Disaster comes upon a man and he is overwhelmed by it. He falls into melancholy and despair until he learns how another has sung himself out of his grief; and then he too sings with the hopeful poet. Milton loses his sight. He is stunned by the calamity for a time and then he rises above it and writes the sonnet on his own blindness:

"When I consider how my light is spent
Ere half my days, in this dark world and wide,
And that one talent which is death to hide
Lodged with me useless, though my soul more bent
To serve therewith my Maker, and present
My true account, lest He returning chide—
Doth God exact day-labour, light denied?
I fondly ask:—But Patience, to prevent
That murmur, soon replies; God doth not need
Either man's work, or His own gifts: Who best
Bear His mild yoke, they serve Him best: His state
Is kingly: thousands at His bidding speed
And post o'er land and ocean without rest:—
They also serve who only stand and wait."

And thus the poet gives to others the courage to rise above calamity.

Every gradation of emotion finds a voice in song or story. Even the best fun is not to be found in the comic supplement, or on the vaudeville stage. "Bringing up Father" is good enough in its way, and "When a Feller Needs a Friend" often illuminates

with a flash of truth. Sometimes a vaudeville skit is really clever, but not half so good as Shakespeare's "Henry IV" or Lady Gregory's "Workhouse Ward" or Henry Arthur Jones' "Dolly Reforming Herself," or Shaw's "You never Can Tell." The comic sheet and the vaudeville stunt may even be ludicrous enough to make a dog laugh. But when literature is funny, the trained reader, a human being, laughs till tears roll down his cheeks and he must hold his aching sides. Next year the comic hero of the Sunday paper will have gone the way of all flesh; but two hundred years hence neighbor Dogberry and Jack Falstaff will flourish like the green bay tree, as they have flourished these three hundred years, dead and gone.

And listen to the conclusion of the whole matter—my exordium. All that I have been saying to you means that literature is one of the fine arts, one of the chief sources of culture and refinement. But culture is only good taste. It is something you can live without. You can make a living without it. But life is less worth the living even if your pay check is a large one. Yes, you can live without literature or any of the arts. But without them you stand only in the vestibule of the house of life. The vestibule is reasonably spacious, well lighted, comfortable. But it opens into wide apartments through a dozen golden doors. Literature is a master key to all of these doors; and to some of them the only key. Make the key yours, possess it, and from your present vestibule to the larger phases of life you may advance and open the door of Laughter, the door to the Fountain of Tears, the door to the Heart of Nature, the door to the Mind and Soul of Humanity, the door to the depths of human experience, the door to a new freedom of thinking and of speaking your thoughts. And best of all, when you have made yourself familiar with these new and spacious rooms in the house of Life, you may, while living in the driving present, get a glimpse of what is yet to be, and share in all that has been in the past.

How to Learn Languages—Personal Experiences

William S. de Witte, Pittsburgh, Pa.

MY own experiences may be of some service to the many readers of this magazine, who desire to study foreign languages, either for their commercial advancement, or for private culture. The writer is the son of Serge de Witte, the well-known Minister of Finance of Russia; from his early youth he has made the many systems of learning languages, his particular hobby. Having had the advantages of special encouragement from his father, and exceptional opportunities for meeting the educated men of other countries, he developed a fondness for study along this line.

The majority of people regard a knowledge of languages as a most enviable accomplishment; a linguist is considered a man specially gifted, or one who has had the opportunity of acquiring languages through residence abroad.

I became a polyglot by simple application to study in my native land, Russia, and managed to acquire, without living abroad, the correct pronunciation of a number of languages. My father began to teach me Latin when I was six years old; I made considerable progress and in a short time, was able to compose, without any hesitation, hundreds of Latin phrases, basing them upon the sentences learned from a textbook.

Memory and mimicry are the two faculties largely called into play in learning languages; the system adopted by me, and which I recommend to others, is to learn a language as we learn our multiplication tables. We must begin at the beginning, mastering each lesson before taking up the next one. Our multi-

plication tables are usually learned on the parrot system, and all we subsequently learn of mathematics, is based upon the knowledge we thus acquired. If we obtain a similar basis for our knowledge of languages, it will be a great idea.

I studied Latin at school, and the knowledge of Latin grammar has been of inestimable value to me in my study of modern languages. I fully believe every American boy should be taught Latin at school.

In my eighth year, I was struck by the apparent simplicity of German grammar as compared with Latin. Many of the words seemed quite similar to English, and at one sitting, I learned the numerals up to 100, and was able to translate quite a number of passages. I used the German Dictionary, received lessons from a private instructor, and after two years' instructions, was able to speak quite fluently.

I visited the book shops, especially the dealers in second-hand books, and purchased quite a few of such books with the small funds which were allowed me in my boyhood days; I soon had a fairly large collection of books on English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Dutch, Russian, Greek, Japanese, and several Central African, and even South Sea languages, learning something out of each book.

In my spare time, I dipped into the Scandinavian languages, and frequently visited a Norwegian cobbler who helped me toward pronouncing correctly, as I read from the book, while he was repairing boots.

I became a welcome guest in the shop of several Italian sculptors, who taught me their native language and within a short time, I was able to speak to Italian ice-cream vendors in their own language. They used the Neapolitan dialect, which was rather difficult to understand, but the better educated Italians who spoke the Toscano dialect, were able to understand me very readily.

I had heard it said that one might learn any European

language perfectly, but that no foreigner could ever speak French like a native. I was somewhat incredulous regarding this and was delighted to find a pamphlet containing a list of the words most used in French, and committed it to memory within a week. This formed a useful working vocabulary.

I had read that phonetics played an important part in every language. After I found that the French nasal sounds were vowels, I learned that the English and the American equivalent is made by combining a number of letters, such as bong, dong, and ung, etc. The French pronunciation, therefore, is easier and more consistent than the English.

The greatest difficulty was the accentuation, as not a single word corresponded with English rhythm. In English, we generally accentuate the first or the second syllable of a word, and then place the secondary and tertiary accents in zigzag fashion, an unaccented syllable following each accented syllable, whereas, in French, the last syllable is always the accented syllable. After taking up, and memorizing many of the sentences in the books I was studying, I was able to say almost anything in correct French, and in speaking their language with the native Frenchmen, they would not believe that I was a Russian, nor that I had learned French only at home.

While studying these languages, I made a number of friends: Morreli and Luigi, the Italian sculptors at Florence; Christopher, the Norwegian cobbler at Arondal; Christian, the Danish butcher at Copenhagen; Hans, the German clerk at Hamburg; Louis Dupont, the old French doctor at Calais; and Mr. Utshkushisa, the Japanese.

Leaving home at the age of sixteen, in order to study in Paris, I became acquainted with a large number of foreigners, and gladly performed small services for them from time to time. I often translated letters for Italians and Russians, frequently translating affidavits for the Court, when any legal troubles

among the foreigners presented themselves. I believe that I am in a position to recommend a number of books, which have been of great service to me, and I gladly mention them here:—

Prendergast's Manual.
Smith's German Principia.
Cassel's German Dictionary.
Pitman's "Foreign Languages Made Easy."
"French in a Week."
Felix Franke's "Primer of Phonetics."
Passy's "Abrege de Prononciation Francaise."

The Little Cemetery

Upon a height of old New Hampshire's hills,
Shaded by spruces in the free winds tossed,
Its stone posts leaned, its iron gates half crossed,
This ruined burial-place the fancy thrills.

Within its broken walls the few graves lie,
Topped by long grass; their quaint memorials,
Carved with the weeping willow, these old walls,
Are smothered in wild verdure; but the eye

Traces where love some garden lily placed,
Its pointed leaves, like bayonets, grown rank
About twin marbles on a mound's rough bank:
Yet by this token the whole spot is graced.

All of one house were these, the names declare,
E'en by the villagers forgotten now.
None comes intent time's ravage to repair
Or wanders here in hopeful prayer to bow.

One hundred years ago—the open grave,
The sorrowing group,—we see them gathered 'round,
Saddened by this brief parting—underground
Soon the rest vanished where the lilies wave.

HELEN CARY CHADWICK.

The Junior High School vs. The Six-Year High

Albert Renwick, University of Michigan,
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I. Introductory Remarks.

IT is the writer's purpose in this paper to lay his finger on the essential differences between the junior high school and the senior high, to determine the aims of the several institutions, and the ends which they subserve. In doing this it will be necessary (1) to define terms, (2) to enter into a critical analysis of the situation or existing condition, (3) and to reach a definite conclusion only after sifting all the evidence bearing on the problem. The new junior-senior high school, so called, at Houghton, is used as a test case.

There is a necessity for a definition or at least a limiting of the terms junior high school and six-year high because of the general confusion in their use. Thus, in an article written by Frank W. Simmonds, Superintendent of the Lewiston Public Schools, Idaho, appearing in "Educational Administration and Supervision," the heading "Six Year High School of Lewiston" is used as the title, and yet the first statement made is to the effect that "the Lewiston Public Schools have been organized on the 6-3-3 plan." The same is true of an article written by V. L. Mangun, Superintendent of Schools at Macomb, Illinois, appearing in the "Elementary School Journal," in which the writer endeavors to set forth "Some Junior High School Facts Drawn From Two Years of the Six-Six Plan at Macomb, Illinois." If what is meant is that the junior and senior high schools together make a six-year course of study, why do not they say that? This rather vague use of terminology is one of the confusing things encountered in the study of educational movements generally. Greater effort should

be made to limit and otherwise define any term that is likely to prove a stumbling block to the student who is not endowed with a magical art or mind reading power of any sort, and thus cannot readily follow the thought processes of those who use words carelessly.

In this paper it is taken as the belief that certain things are necessary before the term junior high school can be applied to an institution. There should be (1) a separate organization of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades or at least the eighth and ninth grades; (2) a separate building in which these grades are housed; (3) an educational aim that is distinct from the elementary school and the senior high; (4) a *very much modified* program of studies; (5) a school spirit unlike that of the grades above and below; (6) a school discipline unlike that found in the grades above and below; (7) methods of instruction and study distinct from the grades above and below; (8) the organization and administration of pupil activities different from what it has been before; (9) departmental teaching rather than the one teacher regimen; promotion by subjects rather than by grades; (10) some pupil choice of subjects; (11) the administration of the internal problems of the school different than it has been administered before; (12) the inclusion in this school of subjects heretofore found only in other parts of the system, or which have not been taught at all.[1] The six-year high school on the other hand will be housed in the one building, and will have in consequence an organization dissimilar to that of the junior high school in several of the items of the above list of peculiar characteristics of the junior high.

If Davis is quoted extensively in this paper it is owing to the fact that he is teaching this course, and the writer believes in reading whatever he has written on the subject—not only to get his point of view but to reconcile it with that of other authorities on the subject, and with my own as I am slowly formulating it to my satisfaction.

1. Davis' Lectures.

II. A Discussion or Critical Analysis of the Situation or Existing Condition.

A. Why the Two Systems?

The junior high school is to be a part of a six-year secondary school plan, but it is possible to have a six-year high school without the junior high. The North Central Association has declared that a high school that has less than five hundred students would do best to organize a six-year high school. On the other hand the larger cities make a mistake in not organizing on the 6-3-3 basis. For the big town it is absurd not to have a junior high school.[2]

The advantage of the six-year high school over the junior high for the smaller cities and towns has been shown in Indiana. "In many of the high schools of average size in Indiana a large number of rural children enter the ninth grade. In Oakland City approximately thirty per cent of the ninth grade are rural. Under the 6-3-3 plan this group would be only one year in the junior high school. Then the members would pass to another group of teachers for the last three years of work. This group of rural students would not feel that they were entering the regular high school. Such an attitude would not be conducive to the best school spirit. Again, limited numbers in the upper three groups of the 6-3-3 organization would handicap the extra-school activities. Neither would contain sufficient numbers for many group activities. Furthermore the cost would be more for the 6-3-3 type because much of the equipment would need to be in duplicate. If the two upper departments were housed separately there would be an additional outlay for buildings and for the administration of the system. This evidence indicates that the six-six organization has certain advantages over other types of organization for the smaller or medium sized community."[3]

However, there may be a maximum size beyond which the 6-3-3

2. Davis' Lectures.

3. Hough, W. R. Advantages of the Double-Six Organization, School Review, 27:377-84, May, 1919.

organization is the type that will give the greatest service. This has been proved distinctly the case in Detroit. Formerly the high schools of that city were organized on the six-six basis, but recognizing that this type of high school did not meet the needs of the city of Detroit the educational leaders of that city did an about face and adopted the 6-3-3 plan. From present indications it seems to be very much more satisfactory.

B. The Common Basis and the Common End.

Both institutions are built on the basis of a six-year elementary schooling and both subserve much the same ends. As Hanus points out "the period from twelve to eighteen years of age is the period of secondary education as defined by many private schools and endowed schools. They recognized long ago that four years, on the basis of our contemporary elementary education, is too short a time to do the work that should be done in secondary education. Consequently for a long time they have given more than four years to secondary education."[4] Recognizing that such an extension of the secondary school program was the best thing for the public school as well as the private this same change was made in many public school systems.

It was "the analysis of the unsatisfactory conditions found in elementary and secondary school education that gave rise to the idea of redividing the twelve-year high school course, six years to constitute the elementary school, and six years the high school. The theory is that six years are amply sufficient to encompass the elementary education, and that the seventh and eighth grades should assume the character of the high school and adopt its forms and methods. In addition the new theory demands that the upper six grades shall be reorganized throughout."[5]

By initiating such a program it was argued that (1) the work of the upper grades could be much more adapted to the needs of the pupils; (2) the public would be enlisted in its favor because the social needs of the community would be met to a much greater

4. Hanus, Paul H. A Six-Year High School Program, to be found in his "Modern School," pp. 99-109.

5. Davis, C. O. Principles and Plans for Reorganizing Secondary Education, to be found in "High School Education," ed. by C. H. Johnston, pp. 67-105.

extent; (3) the transition from the elementary school would be gradual, not abrupt; (4) the problem of a congested program of the elementary school would to some extent be solved by the change; (5) it would serve to retain in the school a large number of boys and girls who would otherwise drop out.[6]

The junior high school largely subserves the same ends as does the six-year high. Briggs lists the purposes of the junior high school as: "first, the continuation in so far as may seem wise and possible, and in a gradually diminishing degree, common, integrating educaton; second, the ascertaining and reasonable satisfaction of the pupils' important immediate and assured future needs; third, the exploration by means of material in itself worth while of the interests, aptitudes, and capacities of pupils; fourth, the revelation to them, by material otherwise justifiable, of the possibilities in the major fields of learning; and, fifth, the starting of each pupil on a career which, as a result of exploratory courses, he, his parents, and the school are convinced is most likely to be of profit to him and to the State."[7] These purposes may just as well be made to apply to the six-year high school as to the junior high. The only difference is that the junior high school is best as the administrative unit in the large city while the six-year high serves best these purposes in the smaller or medium sized town or city.

The elementary education that these two institutions build on "besides promoting and strengthening one's physical health, has for its chief aims the opening of the mind to the entire world in its elements, the development of interests in the world and its activities, and the fastening of desirable habits of mind and body. It should emphasize chiefly the formal aspects of education. Its mission is to prepare for further school work. It aims not at knowledge itself but at supplying the tools of the mind and at

6. Snedden, D. S. Six-Year High School Course, Educational Review, 26. 525-29.

7. Briggs, T. H. The Junior High School, p. 26.

inculcating attitudes and habits of mind that will enable the individual later to pursue knowledge and industry."[8]

"It is secondary education that lays stress on gaining a systematically arranged content of knowledge, and that seeks first to discover for each pupil his real dominant interests and aptitudes; and, secondly, so to train and develop these incipient powers that each may put into his life as much social service as possible, and simultaneously derive from life as much personal satisfaction as may be. Trained individuality—that is the end and aim of the secondary schools; but a trained individuality that ever recognizes these principles: that individual progress and happiness are always dependent upon the progress and happiness of all the other members of the social group, that whatsoever serves the best interests of the social whole serves at the same time the best interests of the individuals who compose that social whole, and that the distinguishing characteristics of individuality are a trained and accurate judgment and a vigorous persistent will. The prime function of the secondary school is to afford abundant opportunities for the development of these processes.[9]

As H. G. Lull states it "as the student passes into the junior high school the emphasis upon the acquisition of the technique of subjects found in the elementary school gradually shifts to the use of the technique as tools in securing new ideas and appreciation, solving problems, and executing projects."

C. The Proposed New Junior-Senior High School at Houghton, Michigan.

The Houghton High School burned on December 17, 1921. A new building is being planned on the junior-senior basis according to a report given out by the Superintendent of Schools of Portage Township. He further says that it is the purpose of the new school to perform the following functions: (1) to realize a democratic school system through the retention of pupils, the economy of time, the recognition of individual differences, exploration for guidance, and vocational education; (2) to recognize the nature

8. Davis, C. O. Same reference as 5.

9. Lull, H. G. Social Core of the High School Curriculum, School Review, 26:7-17, January, 1918.

of the child; (3) to provide conditions for better teaching; (4) to secure better scholarship; (5) to improve the disciplinary situation and socializing opportunities; (6) to effect financial economy; (7) to relieve the building situation; (8) to continue the influence of the home; (9) to hasten reform in the grades above and below; (10) to normalize the size of classes; (11) and to relieve teachers.[10]

In answer to a number of direct questions asked it was found that the new school was to consist of the seventh, eighth and ninth grades, but that it was to be housed in the same building as the senior high; that the program of studies was to be very much modified from what it was under the 8-4 plan, but that the methods of instruction and study were *not* to be distinct from the grades above and the grades below; that departmentalization was to take place, but that the educational aim of the seventh, eighth and ninth grades was *not* to be distinct from the grades above and the grades below; that there was to be some student choice of subjects; that the students were to be promoted by subject rather than by grade; that subjects were to be included in these grades that were formerly taught only in the high scool, or taught not at all; and that the organization and administration of pupil activities *was to be no more different* from what it has been before than necessity requires.[10]

Comparing these characteristics of this proposed new junior-senior high school at Houghton with those that are thought to be necessary before the term junior high school can be applied in all fairness to a system it is seen that the Houghton school is lacking in several of the peculiar characteristics of such an institution. The seventh, eighth and ninth grades are *not* to be housed in a separate building though they are to have a separate study hall and session rooms, nor are they to have an educational aim distinct from the grades above and the grades below. The organiza-

10. Questionnaire sent to the Superintendent of Portage Township in connection with a paper that I was wriiting on the "Social Status of the Schools of Calumet and Portage Townships."

tion and administration of pupil activities is to be no more different from what it has been before than necessity requires. The methods of instruction and study are not to be distinct from that of the grades above and the grades below. In these and possibly in other counts the Houghton school will fall short in the "standard measurement" for a junior high school.

But if the new school at Houghton cannot properly be called a junior high school, can it appropriately be termed a six-year high? It has been stated that both of these institutions largely subserve the same ends. The question is—will the proposed new Houghton school subserve these common ends? I think so. It has been shown that the Houghton school will be lacking in several of the characteristics that make for a junior high school. Does the lack of these characteristics also take away its right to be called a six-year high? No,—of course not. The fact that the six grades are to be housed in one building is reason itself for calling it a six-year high school. It is largely owing to this fact—the housing of the six grades in a common building—that the educational aim of these grades is not to be distinct from the grades above and those below; that the methods of instruction and study are not to be distinct from the grades above and the grades below; and that the organization and administration of pupil activities is to be no more different from what it has been before than necessity requires. So, the inference is, that the proposed new Houghton school may appropriately be called a six-year high.

But let us glance over the proposed outline course of study for the new school and see how it tallies with a suggested program of studies for a six-year high school such as Davis and Hanus suggest (Davis[11]).

11. Same reference as 5 and 4.

Proposed Outline Course of Study For The New Junior-Senior High School.

The program is based upon six hour periods a day. This includes time for the passing of classes. Each child is required to take at least 25 hours of work a week. The election of additional hours of work may be permitted up to 30 hours; but in most cases the election of more than two hours will not be advised beyond the 25 required.

Seventh Grade Or First Year Junior High.

Required Recitation Hours Per Week	
English	5
Mathematics	5
Social Studies	5
Physical Training	2½
Music	1
Manual or Domestic Arts	2½
Drawing	1
Hygiene	1
Literature	2
Total Required	25

Elective Hours	
Manual or Domestic Arts	2
Orchestra	2
Chorus	2
Art	2
Additional Subjects Required When Necessary.	
Spelling	1
Penmanship	1
Mathematics (fundamentals)	1

Eighth Grade or Second Year Junior High.

Required Recitation hours Per Week	
English	5
Mathematics	5
Social Science	5
Physical Education	2
Hygiene	1
Literature	2
Total Required	20

Elective Hours	
Latin	5
General Science	3
Manual and Domestic Arts	3
Music	2
Typewriting	2½
Bookkeeping	2
Art	2
Orchestra	2

Note.—Weak pupils may be required to take the additional subjects required of weak pupils in the seventh grade.

NINTH GRADE OR THIRD YEAR JUNIOR HIGH.

Required Recitation Hours Per Week

English 5
Social Studies 5
Physical Training 2

Total Required 12

Elective Hours

Latin 5
General Science 9B 5
Elementary Mathematics ...5
French 5
Manual Domestic Arts 5
Typewriting 2½
Bookkeeping 3
Music 2
Orchestra 2
Art 2
Physical Geography 5

THE SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL COURSE-AFTER HANUS.

EDUCATIONAL ORDERS	SCHOOLS	AGES	GRADES	CHARACTERISTICS
Primary	Lower (Primary School)	6 to 9	1 2 3	Reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, drawing, music.
	Upper (Primary School)	9 to 12	4 5 6	The same with language forms, geography, and elementary science. Object lessons, with familiar animals and plants, coal, rain, etc. Making of collections.
Secondary	Lower (High School or Academy)	12 to 15	7 8 9	General studies, aiming at the true appreciation of nature, men, and books. Major half of the curriculum devoted to facts rather than forms.
	Upper (High School or Academy)	15 to 18	10 11 12	Similar studies, in more technical form. Processes more exhaustive. College preparatory courses.

A Suggestive Program of Studies for a Six-year High School.—After Davis.

Subjects	Grades 7	8	9	10	11	12	Total	Graduate Work
English and Literature	*4	*4	*4	*4	3	3	22	
History, Civics and Geography	*3	*3	*3	3	3	3	18	
Ethics and Sociology	*2	*2	*2	..	..	..	6	
Mathematics, Arith., Alg., Geom., Trig.	*4	*4	*4	3	3	3	21	
Latin and Greek	4	4	4	4	3	3	22	
	..	..	..	4	4	3	11	
Modern Languages—	..	4	4	3	3	3	13	
German, French, Spanish	4	4	4	3	3	2	16	
	..	..	4	3	3	2	20	
Physical and Biological Science	*2	*2	‡6	‡6	‡8	‡8	32	
Physiology and Hygiene	*2	*2	*2	..	..	1	7	
Manual Training (for boys)	*3	*3	‡6	‡6	‡8	‡8	34	
Home Economics, Dom. Science, Arts	*3	*3	‡6	‡6	‡6	‡6	30	
Business Administration and Commerce	2	2	4	4	4	4	20	
Commercial Work	3	3	‡6	‡8	‡10	‡10	40	
Mechanical and Freehand Drawing	*2	3	4	4	4	4	21	
Music and Fine Arts	*2	*2	3	2	2	2	12	
Voice Culture, Dramatic Speaking	*2	*2	2	1	1	1	9	
Physical Training	*2	*2	*2	2	2	2	12	
Agriculture and Horticulture	3	3	‡8	‡8	‡8	‡8	38	
Industrial Training	3	‡4	‡8	‡8	‡8	‡8	39	
Elementary Philosophy	..	..	..	..	..	2	2	

* Required subjects. ‡ Double periods for laboratory.

Such a program as Davis suggests cannot be adapted to any particular school, locality, or type of pupil, but as its title suggests—it is a suggestive program. Radical changes must needs be made to arrive at a suitable program for any particular school. Yet in its general outline the program is indicative of the types of studies that should be offered. It can be seen by comparing the Houghton program with that of Davis that this is true. The

Houghton program is *not* essentially different in its main outline from that which Davis suggests for a six-year high.

But neither is the Houghton program essentially different from the single curriculum type of program adopted by many junior high schools. This type of curriculum has been much improved of late, and has taken on many of the features of the constants-with-variables type. In accordance with this latter type there are certain constant subjects pursued and also certain variable subjects from which each pupil, with the co-operation of those guiding him, selects enough work to make a full curriculum.[12]

From this comparison the conclusion is reached that the difference between the new Houghton school and a junior high school is not to be distinguished by the program of studies of the two institutions but by such an administrative factor as the housing of the school and the consequent differences (already outlined) brought about by this difference in housing.

III. Concluding Remarks.

From the foregoing analysis it would seem that the distinguishing mark between the junior high school and the six-year high is not essentially a difference in the program of studies, but rather a difference in the administrative unit—buildings. The six-year high school calls for an organization of all school work beyond the sixth grade within separate and distinct schools. The junior high school "calls for a division of the six high school grades into two equal parts, each part to occupy a building by itself and to be styled respectively, the junior high school and the senior high school."[13] Therefore, although the program of studies may be a much more intricate affair in the junior high school, the difference from the six-year high school is not essentially the program but the difference in housing.

12. Koos, L. V. The Junior High School, to be found in connection with the discussion of the curriculums of junior high schools.

13. Same reference as 5.

Discipline in Schools

Florence Sanborn, Hill Military Academy,
Portland, Oregon.

THE subject of discipline and government in schools is one that has received much attention from able and learned school men in all ages. Wise educators have written many books on School Government; The Science of Discipline, Training of the Child, and other kindred subjects. Thousands of teachers have drilled themselves to observe religiously all the aids to discipline taught by those wise ones; such as busy school, cheerful tone, beautiful surroundings, physical change, firmness and justice, knowledge of the pupils' home life, putting yourself in the attitude of a companion, neat and tasty attire, low, sweet voice, and yet have failed dismally in discipline. So that even today we hear of this or that teacher having a knack for government, or this or that teacher being lucky in always having a nice school. I have not always found it either pleasant or profitable to listen to the teacher who was anxious to tell just how the thing was done. There has been a half-defined notion in my mind that, in school affairs, those who could tell so well just how a thing was rightly done, were probably not able to do it at all. Often those who did excellent work could *not* tell *how* they did it.

During fifteen years' experience in schools in which the management was recognized as good, I have often been asked how I did it. My answer has been: "It is not I, but the young people—they are good, intelligent, lovable." When asked how I treated this or that suppositional depraved case, I had only to say: "I never had such a case. There are no such pupils in this school."

When I began to teach, this verse of Scripture took hold of me: "And whosoever shall offend one of these little ones, that believe in me, it were better for him that a millstone were hanged about

his neck and he were cast into the sea." The thought of ignorantly or otherwise harming one of these children under my care was most abhorrent to me, from the start. For a time the thought in that text was my only firm foundation. I studied school discipline in books; I tried to put into practice all the rules for how it is done, that wise ones had told in my hearing; I took numerous educational papers and read them; I attended institutes and associations galore; and sat open eared and open mouthed ready to snap up any crumb of wisdom that might come my way. I impersonated the naughty girl in a class, while the Normal professor with an eye-glass, administered discipline in the form of a stinging rebuke, which I dutifully took down in my note-book. I wore my prettiest dresses in school; cultivated a low, soft voice; put plants in the windows and pictures on the walls. I lectured on the rights of property, spelled justice with a capital "J" and appealed to the higher nature of the boy with a tack. I conferred with educational dignitaries; haunted the steps of the superintendent, and finally visited the parent in his lair and tabulated the home influences.

Before beginning to teach I had been for some months in a state normal school where I had made large trunks full of note-books filled with recipes of how to teach what nobody wanted to know. I carefully reviewed these notes and made others. I attended summer school; went in for experimental sciences; cultivated the society of teachers; joined mutual improvement clubs and otherwise; did my hair in the latest style; and silently organized my school into a mutual admiration society, which gave six hour entertainments five days of the week, for the amusement of the performers and their parents. I worked myself up into an electric battery with electric motive force sufficient to carry, not only the school, but the whole town for a while. I went in for physicality, enthroned Physiology, Hygiene and the tape-line; conferred with physicians; studied statistics; ran the laboratory over-time; tested water, air and pressure; brought the skeletons out of the closets, and made a head professor of the manikin. I

dissected; tested, measured, weighed, tabulated, until, in the minds of both teachers and pupils the school suggested a home for incurables.

All this while my school was universally considered not only a model in discipline, but very progressive and "so improving." But many a night the millstone was heavy about my neck. This home for incurables weighed on my spirits. I had reached the bottom and it was very dark. Gradually I began to see a little light, then after a time, I saw I was all wrong—had been from the start. For two long years I had blundered as one blind.

The key-note to my awakening was the word ideal. My idea of a school had been true; but false of the pupil. Almost from the start I had had a definite ideal of a good school—my school. It must be a place where all conditions were most favorable for the growth of the good and true, the unfolding of the mental powers, the building of strong character. A place where it would be a pleasure to be, and easy to grow wise and better. Teachers were to inspire and lead; books and appliances were to be helps; happiness and a generous spirit were to be constant quantities in this ideal school. With all my strenuous efforts the favorable conditions were not constant, but spasmodic. Realizing this, I paused and reviewed my work—took an inventory of the situation. What had been my ideal of the child? I had been assuming these children, as individuals, to be in a sense passive; with life not different from a plant or animal. I had been cultivating them much as I would cultivate a flower—attended to soil, sunlight, water and training and pruning as well as heat and cold. Assuming they were flowers, some would lack perfume and others would be sadly defective. Those too badly deformed would be thrown out; but many with lesser defects would be made as perfect as possible under the circumstances. Of course a defective petal could not be helped. All this that I had been assuming concerning the child sounded so well; was so very reasonable; carried itself with such a show of wisdom, I was loath to condemn it, and yet

the fruits of this most excellent notion were not right. This school was not my ideal, but something quite different.

Then I had a revelation. My ideal of the school was true; but my ideal of the child was false. It came to me that every child is the image and likeness of God—perfect in his nature. School must bring this nature out—make it evident. I had been holding a defective ideal for the individual. The true ideal was perfect.

Thus I made my mind over. I looked at each child in this new light. Each was perfect in his nature. I must help him to express his true self. I at once assumed, and acted upon this assumption, that every child was good; wished to do good; and would always respond if this good was appealed to. The young people lacked in expression and often in understanding; but when it was made clear to them, the good ruled. I had found the truth and a sure foundation for my school management. The millstone troubled me no more. From that time, the discipline took care of itself. The conditions were favorable and both teachers and pupils were happy.

How did I use practically this truth that I had found? I believed thoroughly that every child was good, noble, true, anxious to do right, and hungering for knowledge and most receptive to all that would give him power and growth. Then I acted upon this belief. I thought it; talked it; and insisted upon its truth when the opposite was suggested. I tried to recognize and appreciate the good, and lead the pupils to do the same. It was made clear that the wrong actions, thought, or motives must be repudiated at once, not only by the teacher, but by the pupil also. I taught them that wrong can only harm us if we cling to it and defend it. If we turn from it in disgust, it cannot attach itself to us.

For instance. A boy had been tempted and lied. Then to defend this lie he lied and lied until he was full of lies. I said to that boy: "What shall we do with all this lying? Shall we repudiate it, destroy its effects as far as possible and forget it?

It surely is not any part of your real self—you are not a contemptible liar! If you cling to it and defend it, it becomes a part of you, or at least besmirches you. Now what shall we do?"

If you can once induce a person to see a wrong act or motive in its true light, you have educated him above it. The school was run on the basis of the common righteous purpose and motive. The harmonious condition was sustained by the pupils and teachers as well. I talked to these children and treated them exactly as I would talk to and treat good men and women. I talked about them and acted about them exactly as I would true good men and women; and the young people themselves proved the truth of my ideal by acting the part. They responded and were, to the limit of their understanding, good, true men and women. Many things had to be explained and the teacher was there to make things clear. When discords occurred, then the principle of right was applied by both pupil and teacher. This principle will always adjust any matter; but now it is an adjustment of conditions to the principle of right by two or more parties, each anxious that the right should prevail. When once adjusted, it should be promptly forgotten by all, for it was only a momentary halt in the progress of harmony—not of any consequence.

All ill feeling, when met by love, melts into nothingness. All the conditions, adverse and otherwise, which may occur in school are most easily adjusted when this perfect ideal of the individual student is held up where all can see it. Young people especially see themselves through the eyes of the people whom they know and respect. The teacher who does the most for a pupil is the one who sees the greatest possibility in him and helps to bring it out. This is what school if for, to help pupils to express themselves or to bring into consciousness their God-given qualities.

The teacher who admits, even to himself, that the child's true nature is less than perfect, is incapacitated to run a school on this principle. In this school there is no possible opportunity to excuse the poor work of the teacher on the ground of the stupidity of the pupils. The teacher who does not bring out into clearer

expression the perfect nature of the child fails, even though that teacher have perfect control of said child. Justice, and sense of responsibility, right motive, courteous manners, kindness, respect for whatever is good, love for things higher, these are all necessary accompaniments to this working out of the true nature of the pupils. Punishment, in the sense of something unpleasant imposed, finds no place in this school. The wrong is never righted until harmony of feeling is restored and the culprit understands the true nature of his act, and turns from it with sincere disgust. The person is safe who knows right and wants to do right. If this principle is carried out successfully, the work must be sincere; neither frivolity nor mock sentiment must enter into it. The teacher must absolutely believe all that he teaches. One note of pretense is fatal. Flattery is impossible; but appreciation of merit and character is excellent.

This is an age when change comes easily. This ideal of the child, sustained by love and wise sympathy, is a giant force for good—a solvent of most of the troubles that wise-acres have puzzled over. He who helps us to adopt a high ideal does more for us than can be well told. And the teachers' knowledge of and faith in this high ideal is like the corner stone in the foundation of the pupil's life. Thus in my opinion the problem of discipline and schools is solved when teachers grasp and hold effectively the righteous ideal for both school and pupil.

American Notes—Editorial

We have been impressed and edified by the able contribution on "Discipline in the Schools," which appears on another page of this number of EDUCATION. We agree with the evident opinion of the author that no problem is more important to the welfare of the schools than this; and there are few, if any, that are so difficult of solution. Miss Sanborn has clearly and forcefully set forth in her contribution the best possible solution of the problem of discipline so far as it concerns the large majority of the boys and girls in our public schools. The principle of love, sympathy and kindness will win out in nine cases out of ten, or, perhaps, in ninety-nine cases out of every hundred. But that tenth or hundredth case is the stumbling-block nearly always. Is it but the exception which proves the rule? Let us hope so.

What shall we do with that hundredth case of the absolutely incorrigible pupil? He treats our sympathy with contempt. He sees in it his opportunity to become a leader in disorderliness and "toughness." His ambition lies in that direction. He takes delight in the reputation of being bad.

Such a pupil is by no means a *"rara avis."* On the contrary, he is very apt to be lurking around somewhere in almost every school, in one stage or another of his career of toughness. One never knows just when or where he will break out. When he does he is a menace to the whole school. His example and influence is demoralizing, and something *has* to be done about it. A first resort may be, and probably should be, to kindness and forbearance; this may be continued, perhaps, for a time, and sometimes it will win out; but again it won't. When it won't something else must be tried. Obedience and good order must be maintained in school, as it must be in the State; and it cannot be, with that influence continuing to challenge the teacher's forbearance and the good order of the class or room.

We hate to admit it, but we cannot get away from the fact that some children seem to be born into this world thoroughly depraved and bad. We knew a boy, once,—the child of respectable parents and with a good home,—who took positive delight in finding birds' nests with young birds in them, whose necks he invariably wrung, afterwards hurling the innocent victims to the ground. It seems almost unbelievable, but such was the fact.

Now, in such a case of depravity as this, and in the case of the incorrigible mischief-maker in school, while love may and should be at

the base of all that we do, there is need of discipline with a firm hand, and penalties that shall be felt as such by the culprit, with a compelling force and definiteness.

Here is the crux of the problem of discipline. It is a complex problem in every school. It is a fine art to administer needed discipline without leaving the impression that justice is a violation of the law of sympathy and love.

An interesting set of programs has been prepared by several State organizations for the use of the local groups which make up the Massachusetts Parent-Teacher Association. We feel sure that they will interest similar organizations elsewhere. The programs deal with such problems as: Keeping the child in school, A recreational survey, The safety of the child, The library in the school, Kindergarten extension, Boys' and girls' clubs, and Mental and physical health. Their object is to interest parent-teacher associations in studying their own local situation with a view to focusing work wherever it is most needed. The organizations co-operating in making these programs are Massachusetts Child Labor Committee, State Department of Education, Massachusetts Safety Council, New England School Library Association, Massachusetts State Kindergarten Association, Massachusetts Agricultural College, Massachusetts Society for Mental Hygiene, State Department of Health.

New associations which have just come into affiliation with the state and national associations are: Littleton P. T. A., President, Mrs. John Hutchinson; Methuen, West End P. T. A., President, Mrs. F. D. Thornton; Central School P. T. A., President, Mrs. Charles H. Oliphant; Franklin, Mothers' Club, President, Mrs. Lillian Roth; Gill P. T. A., President, Mrs. Lyman Hale; Lynnfield Center P. T. A., President, Mrs. John S. Caldwell.

Word has gone out over the State from the Chairman of Education, Mr. Burr F. Jones, suggesting that all parent-teacher associations observe Education Week, December 3 to 9, in the following ways: (1) Education Night—that is, a public meeting either under the auspices of the school committee or the parent-teacher association; (2) Parents' Night in the Schools—that is, an evening session of the schools, showing the pupils at work in the schools without special exercises; (3) The use of the local newspapers; (4) Addresses by pastors or school people in the local churches on educational themes.

Every citizen of the United States should know the facts disclosed in the following statement from the Bureau of Education at Washington. The report from the Bureau says:

"Probably never in the history of this country has there been such need for school-building construction as at the present time. Lack of adequate school-building accommodations in the period before the war, and almost total stoppage of all school building during the war, have brought about a state of school-building congestion that is a menace to the health, strength and intelligence of the children of this country. It is a sad commentary upon the educational situation in this country that, although we have accurate statistics about the material resources of the United States, there is nowhere available at present accurate, comprehensive data in regard to the total amount of school building that is needed in order to bring the school plant of the country up to date. It is possible, however, to make an estimate of the minimum amount of money that we need to expend upon school buildings.

In 1920 there were 21,462,133 children in the public schools. Reports from cities of over 8,000 population indicate that half the children in these cities were housed in buildings erected more than 22 years ago. If this is true of school buildings in the cities, it is safe to say that it is at least equally true for country schools. In other words, from the data that the Bureau has been able to gather it is reasonable to assume that at least half the children in the country are housed in buildings nearly a quarter of a century old. This means that at least half the children are housed in buildings that have practically none of the educational facilities of a modern school plant, such as auditorium, gymnasium, shops, cooking rooms, etc. Furthermore, these buildings are not fireproof, as it has been found that only 5 per cent of the total number of buildings in cities of 8,000 and over are of fireproof construction. Assuming, then, that about 10,000,000 of the 21,462,133 children in the country have inadequate housing facilities—and this is doubtless an underestimate—this means that it would be necessary to erect immediately 250,000 classrooms, at a minimum cost of $3,000,000,000.

This is a large sum. Yet in 1920 the people of the United States spent more than seven times as much as this on luxuries. In that year the total expenditure on luxuries was $22,700,000,000. Of this amount $1,000,000,000 was spent on candy, $800,000,000 on cigarettes, $750,000,000 on perfumery and cosmetics, $50,000,000 on chewing gum, and $3,000,000,000 on luxurious services. In the same year the total amount of money spent on education was $963,678,123. In

other words, in 1920 the American people spent more than twenty times as much on luxuries as they did on education. Therefore, to expend $3,000,000,000 on school buildings would mean investing for the school children only about one-seventh as much as was spent on luxuries in the year 1920.

We must remember, however, that $3,000,000,000 is the minimum that is needed for school buildings, and until we secure accurate data on the school-building situation all over the country it is impossible to state the maximum that will be needed."

From the Bulletin of the University of the State of New York we quote the following inspiring words of Frank W. Simmonds, of Lewiston, Idaho:

"If an Agassiz finds pleasure in digging among fossils in order that he may interpret the great story of prehistoric life; if a Thoreau by Walden Pond is delighted with his studies of bugs and beetles; if a John Burroughs on his little patch of ground in the valley of the Mohawk, glories in his life among the birds and bees; if a Luther Burbank is enraptured with his work of transforming a worthless desert cactus into an edible fruit, or in producing sweeter rose or fairer lily; if these and other workers, whose names are legion, revel in the love of their work,—then, by what term shall we designate the joy that should be the teacher's, who works not with mere fossils, nor with bugs or beetles, nor with birds, bees or flowers, but with the child who is at once the most complex, the most plastic, the most beautiful, the most wonderful of all God's creation. Yes, it's a wonderful thing to be a teacher; it's a great thing to teach school."

"There is still in most of the Southern States an inequality in educational privileges which cannot be defended. One State superintendent of public instruction reports that in 1920-21 the public expenditure for the education of white children was $39.26 per capita and for colored children $4.84 per capita. Teachers are often underpaid. School terms are often pitifully short. In every State in the South, however, the set of the current, educationally, is toward the improvement of the Negro schools."—Dr. James E. Gregg, Principal of Hampton Institute.

Book Reviews

So many books are sent to this department of EDUCATION that it is impossible to review them all. Naturally we feel under obligation to give preference to the books of those publishing houses which more or less frequently use our advertising pages. Outside of the limitations thus set, we shall usually be able and glad to mention by title, authors, and publishers, such books as are sent to us for this purpose. More elaborate notices will necessarily be conditional upon our convenience and the character of the books themselves.

JUSTIFIABLE INDIVIDUALISM. By Frank Wilson Blackmar, Professor of Sociology in the University of Kansas. T. Y. Crowell Company. Price $1.00 net.

A most timely utterance, calling attention to the fact that too little stress is laid upon the individual and too much upon the mass groups of humanity at the present time, throughout the world. The moral and intellectual character of the individual is of immense value to society. Human welfare and progress depend upon the individual. Yet a man or woman is almost disregarded as compared with Society, the State, the Church, the Club, the Firm or Company, the "Ring," or the (so-called) "Brotherhood" or the "Union."

THE LITTLE CORNER NEVER CONQUERED. The Story of the Red Cross Work for Belgium. By John Van Schaic, Jr. Illustrated. The Macmillan Company. Price $2.00.

Dreadful and wonderful stories are told in this book. One hesitates to say which produce the more vivid and soul-stirring impressions. We shudder at the relation of the experiences of the war-torn men, women and children; we hate the human beings and human passions which caused the war; we are profoundly impressed with the admirable organization and vast success of the work of ministry and salvage rendered by this wonderful, humanitarian and Christian organization. This is a book to place in the hands of any one who is pessimistic as to human love and pity. The work of the Red Cross is an argument for God's love and man's love that cannot be gainsaid.

Books published by the Manual Arts Press:—

Sewing Handicraft. A Graded Course for City and Rural Schools. By Idabella McGlauflin. Price 35 cents.

Mechanical Drawing Problems. For High, Normal and Vocational Schools. By Edward B. and Emil F. Kronquist.

Boy Activity Projects. By Samuel A. Blackburn, B.E. Price $1.25.

SOLID GEOMETRY. By Herbert E. Hawkes, Ph.D., William A. Luby, M.A., and Frank C. Touton, Ph.D. Ginn & Co. Price $1.24.

"This text, through its hundreds of queries, aims to encourage the student to regard the subject not merely as a logical sequence of theorems but as a subject inviting reflection and the play of speculation." It looks as if the authors might meet with considerable success in this aim. These queries are well worth while and are undoubtedly stimulating. They will help in both vizualization and clear thinking. A second strong point is the assumption of Cavalier's theorem. The result is that the development of volume is greatly simplified. The student will lose nothing by the avoidance of awkward proofs here. They are not necessary for his training in logical thinking.

In detail, there is good treatment of the theorem, If two intersecting lines are parallel to a plane, their plane is parallel to the plane; also the different cases of, Through a point only one plane can be drawn. The definition of circular cylinder or cone as one whose right section is a circle, should be more common in text-books. The definition of prismatoid is very broad, including the prism, pyramid, and frustrum. Proofs, as a rule, are attractive by their conciseness. Two theorems, however, still remain with long proofs. These are the volume of a frustrum and the volume of a sphere. Perhaps these will not be required in the near future. The volumes of the cylinder and cone are assumed, as are all areas of curved solids. Near the end is an interesting comparison of plane and spherical geometry. The book is strictly up to date and seems well balanced in regard to visualization, logical thinking, and numerical application. It will, in all probability, meet with much favor among teachers.—Robert R. Goff.

ETON FABLES. By Cyril Arlington, Head Master of Eton College, Chaplain to the King, etc. Longmans, Green & Company. $1.25 net.

The Age of Fable is not wholly a thing of the past. In this little volume a really great mind has been applied to the task of seeing life in things all about us in the world and setting forth the subtle relations of living things in Nature to each other and to man. There is no reason whatever for the Age of Fable to be forever closed since the time of Aesop. Human sentiments and experiences are the same in all ages. In these practical days we need the tonic of tales like these. They awaken the imagination, move the emotions, clear the vision, and make us see things more plainly and in their right relations. Children and adults alike will feel the fascination of this book.

YOUTH AND THE NEW WORLD. Essays from The Atlantic Monthly. Edited by Ralph Philip Boas, Head of the English Department, Central High School, Springfield, Mass. The Atlantic Monthly Press.

The source and the editorship of this volume commend it at once to the reader as a book worth while. It is intended to give the young man and woman of today a practical acquaintance with some of the leading problems of American life of today. Such problems have, many of them, to say the least, to be solved by the rising generation. They cannot be solved without they are fully understood; and so the thoughtful young person must have them set before him in the schools; and in his English classes he must learn what has been thought and said about them, and must be taught how to marshal his own powers of thought and contribute to their proper solution. The Editor says that "Those essays have been chosen which seem most likely to set young people to thinking, to challenge them to hold opinions of their own, and to stimulate them to a search for further knowledge." Such volumes as this make the English hour in schools and colleges really interesting and vitally related to individual and world interests.

CALCULUS AND GRAPHS. Simplified for a first brief course. By L. M. Passano. The Macmillan Company.

Presenting the subject in a simple manner, the author seeks to aid the student rather than to make a learned disquisition for the benefit of professional mathematicians. He shows how the natural sciences depend at all points on mathematical principles, and he seeks to give the student practical help that will be of real service all through his later work.

DESCRIPTIVE GEOMETRY. By George Young, Jr., Professor of Architecture, Cornell University, and Hubert Eugene Baxter, Assistant Professor in the same department. The Macmillan Company.

In the Preface the authors of this volume state that the effort has been made in preparing their book "to hold the student's attention by means of introductory paragraphs and other explanatory matter intended to show the relation of the principles under discussion to structural work." Yet the discussion has been kept strictly abstract "in order to avoid, in so far as is possible, the tendency of the whole subject to degenerate into practical rules and formulas." A set of exercises has however been added to show the application of the abstract ideas to concrete working problems. The volume will be of great value to advanced students, especially those who are planning to enter any of the leading constructive professions dealing with concrete building enterprises.

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Sex Differences, Biological or Acquired?

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THE difference between the sexes has been a question of more or less dispute. Those who believe there is a difference cannot decide exactly where it lies, whether biological or acquired, and if the former, is it physical or mental or both. Or is it both biological and acquired. It is the purpose of this paper to marshal the evidence on both sides, and then deduce some conclusions that might be of help to (1) those to be taught; (2) to those who teach.

Biological heredity, physical and mental, is fixed before birth, and is not susceptible to modification. It is the race, ancestry, sex and individual variation making up a new organism, a distinct personality.

Social heredity is acquired through the environment or social conditions under which one is born and raised, and is continually being modified by the demands society makes upon the individual through its traditions, customs, conventions, ideals, attitudes and general requirements.

So close is the relation between physical and mental characteristics that we are justified in expecting different behavior from a dog, an ape, a man, and even between members of the

same species. Ternan puts it thus: "Differences in physical traits are paralleled by equal differences in mental traits."

In the course of evolution from lower to higher forms of animal life, the physical organs preceded the mental or neural processes. That is, animals slowly evolved a nervous structure, which in its increased complexity expressed itself in correspondingly increasing mental reactions.

If the male and female are different biologically in physical characteristics, they must be different in mental characteristics. Lombroso, Ferrero and Ellis have done pioneer scientific work along these lines, and find many physical differences between man and woman, from which they and others conclude mental differences. Only a few can be here noticed.

Man has longer thumbs and longer big toes than woman. This indicates an older type or a type that has been longer in evolution. In children the hands are of the newer type. The boy's hand begins to differentiate, but the girl's hands remain the same type, so that a woman's hands are more childish than a man's.

A man is a man even to his thumbs, and a woman is a woman even to her toes.

In man the shape of the trunk is wider at the top, across the shoulders; while in woman it is wider at the bottom across the hips. The latter is also true of children and the higher forms of animals.

We find girls more precocious than boys. They come to maturity earlier and then stop growing, which is an arrested form of development. When a man is arrested in development through some congenital cause or accident, his figure is more like that of a mature woman than of an immature man.

Woman, weight for weight, has a larger brain than man; but this is also a childish characteristic. A child's brain is 90% developed at 11 years, and fully developed at about 15. If it grew in relative proportion to the body it would be so heavy that the body could not carry it.

Many interesting experiments have been carried on to determine

the differences between the sexes in mental traits. We judge mind by its reactions or its behavior. If the behavior is alike the mental processes must be alike, and conversely so.

In tactile sensibility women are superior. Women have also a lower threshold for pain, that is, they are more sensitive. This is true of children and savages.

Women have keener sense of taste. There is less color-blindness among them than among men. Both of these are characteristic of savages. That is, primitive races had more need for keener senses—matter of self and tribal preservation—than have races of civilization.

Galton found, on the same basis of reasoning, that men are more subject to deafness than are women. Color-hearing, which means to hear a musical tone and associate it with a color, is found in more women than in men; also number-form; but as both are childish traits—vivid imagery—that are frequently outgrown, it again shows woman to be a more recent evolution.

Jastrow has conducted experiments with the students of Wisconsin University, with something like the following results:

Women pay more attention to their immediate surroundings, to the finished product, to the bright, the ornamental, to the particular and the concrete. They reason inductively.

Men prefer the remote, the constructive, the useful, the general and abstract. They reason deductively.

If we take the psychology of child life, we find the concrete and the present is earlier comprehended than the abstract and the remote.

Again, Lombroso found that women think quickly and men think deliberately. In history and in fiction it is woman's ruse, wit or tact that frequently saves the day when nothing else could. Women act at once, on the impulse; while men stop to marshal their ideas in order to form a judgment. This mode of procedure is common to weaker, lower orders. They have not developed muscular force or reasoning powers to save themselves, so must resort to trick or trust to intuition.

In some countries a woman's testimony does not rank as high as a man's. There is at present no country (not even America) where a woman may safely state openly her wishes and desires. She must use subterfuge to carry a point.

Modesty, says Ellis, is a form of deceit. Woman may not express her preference for a man, but must wait for him to notice her; so she hides her feelings and blushes if she is faced with a situation. The above examples are cases of social heredity or training.

Working unconsciously by the law of sexual selection, woman conceals defects of body and mind (age for instance), uses cosmetics and gewgaws (as does the savage), because the biological law of her being is to attract the male and bear children, so the species shall not become extinct.

Women have so largely the care of children, who are always wanting to know things which we think they ought not to know, that they (the women) have fallen into the habit of untruthfulness. "How use doth breed a habit." Children also fib very easily. As was stated above, women have a lower threshold for pain, so they will tell lies rather than hurt people's feelings,—doing as they would be done by.

Buckle, as related by Ellis, found that savage women in Africa and Australia were more talkative and ready to direct strangers than were their men. A certain Paris lawyer made use of the command, when investigating cases, "Bring me the woman." It is true the woman told many things that were false, but deducting that, what was left was more than could be gotten from the man.

Dr. Currie found in visiting patients he could get a better line-up if he had a woman to treat than if he had a man. She talked from *one present idea,* while the man hunted around to get data.

Rosseau in "Emile" concludes that girls are more precocious than boys. Scott Thomas has figures that show that girls graduate from high school and college earlier than boys. MacDonlad gives data on one thousand Washington school children to the effect

that girls are superior in nine studies, inferior in four, and equal in one.

From the above findings investigators argue that precocity, alertness and brightness are signs of inferiority, as children of civilized as well as uncivilized races are very precocious in comparison to after years. One psychologist says if we continued to grow in smartness as we grow in years we would be geniuses and prodigies.

Since woman is more like a child than a man is like a child, she is inferior in development or newer in the scale of evolution. [Mary Ann has not yet arrived, but is arriving, and if John doesn't keep up the pace nature has set for him, Mary Ann will not only catch up, but may even out-distance him, and say teasingly, as she looks back, "So long, old boy."]

This inferiority or newness of evolution has some warrant in the Bible story. God created man first; then he caused him to fall into a deep sleep (ages of evolution, perhaps), and then from a rib in his side he made woman to be his helpmeet. Up to that God had been the creator; now the female element is introduced and nature enters on her era of evolution by sexual selection.

In very primitive times woman was the industrial part of the home, while man was militant. [American Indians show this when on the line of march the squaw (woman) carries the tent, the cooking utensils and the papoose on her back, while the brave walks ahead carrying—his *dignity!*]

As religions evolved and the tribes settled down to more peaceful occupations, man took over the industrial functions, leaving woman more to the bearing and rearing of children. This, as time went on, still more differentiated her in sexual characteristics, such as breadth of pelvis, growth of breast, hair upon the head rather than upon the face. Woman also became more secluded and tame, so that it was no longer true of her, in the language of Kipling, "The female of the species is more deadly than the male." The office of child-bearing fell into disrepute, and sex organs and relations were taboo. In Hebrew scriptures

and in Indian philosophy, woman is held as the unclean vessel; so the priesthood became celibate and those who wished to be holy became monks and nuns, and their sacred writings upheld them by declaring that in heaven there is neither marrying nor giving in marriage.

Terman found differences between boys and girls even in the kindergarten as to the kind of work they did and the way they played. The girls were brighter. The mothers also stated that the girls were able earlier and better to dress themselves than were the boys.

Miss Cuneo gives data on 65 boys and 47 girls in school work with a median of 103 for the boys and 108 for the girls.

A table from Terman's "Intelligence of School Children," based on teachers' marks, is as follows: Boys—23.9 very inferior, 17.4 very superior; Girls—8.3 very inferior, 33.3 very superior.

Based on teachers' judgments, the figures are: Boys—17.9 very inferior, 19.8 very superior; Girls—6.4 very inferior, 31.8 very superior.

Thus a close correlation is shown between judgments and school marks. In all the studies Terman has made he reports similar findings.

Dickson examined 79 boys and 71 girls, and found the girls had I. Q.'s three points higher in median. Teachers' ratings were the same. Another test of 150 pupils, boys and girls, of same chronological age, mental age and I. Q.'s, showed boys doing work .4 below average, and girls .19 below.

This might show one of several things, or a combination of them: 1st, That girls have more intelligence than boys; 2nd, That the curriculum is better adapted to the needs and interests of girls; 3rd, That girls excel in industry and application; 4th, That girls submit to direction in work; 5th, Girls are better behaved than boys; 6th, That teachers (mainly women) are better suited to teaching girls than boys; 7th, That girls make use of all they've got, while boys have much in reserve; 8th, That boys have interests

out of doors. But whatever it is, says Terman, if it gets results it *is intelligence.*

Miss Thompson, based on experiments carried on at the University of Chicago, gives data that are summed up as follows:

She tested men and women,ages 20 to 25, who had come from co-ed schools in the Middle West. She gave 45 tests. In 21 women excelled the men, in 21 men excelled the women, and in 4 they were equal. From this she concludes that the sexes are equal in mental make-up. She fails, however, to note that they are *different* as to the abilities in which each excels the other. Only alike in 4 is not saying much as against 21 in which women were ahead and 21 in which men were ahead.

She found that women excelled in skin and muscular senses, in vision, in pain sensitivity, in color discrimination, in memory, taste, smell, and in religious emotions. Earlier investigators found about the same, but attributed them to a newer evolution, whereas she says they come from training, the kinds of things women have to do because of inhibitions, prohibitions and occupations.

Men, she found, excel in reaction time, in motor coördination, in weight discrimination, in ingenuity, in social consciousness, and in reflective thinking; also due to social environment.

We give boys and girls different toys and games early in life. Boys are encouraged to run and whoop, but girls are cautioned against being *tomboys.* We expect men to explore, invent, create. We expect women to be dependent and conservative. Women, thus restricted, are thrown back upon themselves and develop their senses and memory processes so as to get as much as possible out of life.

On the other hand, we might argue that men and women act as they do because they are driven by fundamental, innate differences and interests. In the process of evolution we have recognized the differences and have allowed each sex to work along the lines of its innate characteristics, and this division of labor was found so economical that it has continued and sets more

clearly the inherent differences. So that, broadly speaking, the female represents the conservation of the species, the preservation of past gains made by the race; while the male stands for new elements, adventures, inventions and abstract thinking.

Groszmann declares emphatically: "A normal man differs from a normal woman, a normal boy from a normal girl, in instincts, attitudes, capacities and methods of self-expression. Whatever we may think about woman's emancipation and competition with man in public life, the sexual differences will never be eradicated. Their social and biological functions will differ eternally. Masculine normality and feminine normality are certainly not identical, no matter what rights they may have in common."

Delauney gathered statistics from merchants, who say women are more industrious than men at tasks set for them, but do not originate.

The Prudential Life Insurance Company finds women patient, faithful in routine work, but not ingenious.

The Post Office officials say women are neat, quick and honest, but not anxious to learn beyond the job on hand. They lose their heads in emergencies, and cry and fuss over imagined slights. They are not uniformly courteous to patrons, seeming to lack in social consciousness. They are more snobbish to inferiors and subservient to superiors than men are.

Professional men who employ women, find them obedient to authority until their emotions are aroused, when they will sacrifice everything to maintain their own opinions.

Hall and others call to mind that there is no female Balzac, Roger Bacon, Galileo, Wagner, Beethoven, Michael Angelo, Ibsen, Demosthenes, Caesar, Napoleon, Goethe, Dante, Milton or Shakespeare. George Eliot, Caroline Herschell and Rosa Bonheur, besides a few queens, are the high-water mark of woman's genius or variability from type.

Of the 600 religious sects (Ellis) only eight were founded by women, although women make up the bulk of the worshipers (followers?), and of the eight only one—the most recent—is now practised—Christian Science.

Darwin, Hunter and Burdack show also the extent of man's variability at the lower end of the normal curve, by calling attention to the hare-lips, club-feet, extra digits, reverse placement of heart and liver, left-handedness, albinism, deaf-mutism, idiocy, suicides, mathematical and musical idiot-savants, mystics and cranks among men as compared to women.

Perhaps, if we bring this question within our own personal experiences as teachers, parents, and observers generally, we can deduce some inferences that may be of educational value.

In early years the boy and girl are trusted playmates, treating each other with confidence and a spirit of good comradeship until early adolescence, when they begin to look upon each other as almost different beings. Each has a feeling of reserve and is more or less suspicious of the motives of the other. The periods of growth in boys and girls, coming, as they do, ought to be noted in planning the school work of each. Their tasks should be lightened to allow for the more or less storm and stress of adolescence.

A girl is more functional and regular in attenadnce, and lacking much of the boy's restlessness. She excels in mental *reproduction* (giving back to the teacher what she gets from a book) rather than in *production* (not much demanded in school). This is why the printed page means more to her than it does to the boy, and she makes a good recitation. How could she do otherwise?

The boy, however, does better with a microscope, originates in geometry, physics, manual training, where production counts. Because a girl gets so much from books (stored knowledge of the ages) she is more conservative than her brother, who is fixing up new combinations, studying ever-changing forces of nature, and putting himself into the class of the radicals.

The female has much innate curiosity; the male has probably as much, but in reference to its direction he calls it investigation.

Groszmann quotes from the Minneapolis Tribune:

"Boys are not artificial like girls. Boys can be set to amuse themselves, just as they could in some primitive times. Boys

offer a fixed standard of conduct which the mutation of thousands of years have not been able to alter. We see the same characteristics in the boy of the slums, up to a certain age, that we do in the son of the millionaire. It is only when boys grow up that they yield to environment and habit. Here are some of the things that are common to every boy:

Every boy hates to be dressed up.

Every boy will fight at the drop of the hat.

Every boy will stick to a "pal" through fire and flood.

Every boy hates girls and especially "sissy" boys.

Every boy hates to take a licking.

Every boy throws stones.

Every boy says naughty words.

Every boy will torture or bully a small boy.

Every boy will associate with any other boy he likes, regardless of money, position, education, etc.

Every boy will play "hookey" if he gets half a chance.

When, say up to 12, a boy does not conform to these rules there is something the matter with him. Regarded from the standpoint of efficiency and red blood, he is *no good!*

A girl is a very different creature, and cannot understand a boy at all. She is much more of a conformist than a boy. She will never understand a man's attitude of life, and man is forever puzzled by the surprises a woman gives him.

An effeminate man is an abomination to man and woman; and a mannish woman is an insult to womanhood."

We know our prisons contain more male than female inmates. This is probably due to man's restlessness, greater animal passions, his exposed, strenuous life, and his desire for the things beyond his reach. Browning's lines might have to be rearranged, "A man's reach should exceed his grasp—else what is heaven for!"

When a woman becomes a criminal she is usually worse than a man, because she is nearer the type to start with.

Men's virtues are courage, patriotism, loyalty. Women's are charity, chastity and patience.

Men's crimes are murder, robbery, embezzlement, arson, treason and political rascality. Women's crimes are petty stealing, lying, envying, jealousy and poisoning.

Child study shows boys to be more nervous in early life. Later on this nervousness becomes animal spirits, surplus energy and pure cussedness, that, if utilized, runs our factories, drives our engines, tunnels our mountains, builds our sky-scrapers, finds our North poles, fights our battles, and does the seemingly impossible on land and sea, on earth and in the heavens. This motor ability and constructive energy should be more noted by educators. If men do these things with little encouragement from the schools, what could they not do with proper recognition!

Girls fear more things than boys. This sense of fear is, of course, elemental, and in girls diminishes after the eighteenth year and in boys after the fifteenth year.

Boys are more cruel than girls: witness torturing flies, getting boys to fight,sicking dogs on cats, hazing freshmen, hanging men in mob spirit, torturing heretics, baiting Jews, crucifying the Christs and poisoning the Socrates. This might look as if they are more primitive than girls, but the explanation is that they need this attitude in the struggle for life and have had to give and take so much that they have become hardened to pain.

Boys rarely choose women as their ideals, but half the girls at eight, and two-thirds at eighteen, choose some man as an ideal. This is probably due to the fact that literature, being man-made, is full of manly ideals, and women who read much adopt the ideals there found. It is easier, also, than to create a new ideal; creation not being much in woman's line.

The fact that boys read more science and history and only about half as much poetry, shows that the emotional and intellectual needs of the sexes are different.

Girls read books that some one says are "good." Boys will browse around and choose.

Girls prefer books, more than four times as often, about children or that are funny than do boys. Boys rarely confess to a liking

for a purely girls' story, while girls read boys' stories. Girls are curious about *who* and *what* in a book, and boys about *why* and *how*. Most examination questions are factative,—*who* and *what,* and not *why* and *how*. Might this help teachers to get better responses from boys and better grades for them?

Since the female is a conservator of the past, we find her more superstitious about pins, black cats, the number thirteen, dreams; and more sentimental about relics, souvenirs, old letters, rare laces, photographs, etc. For the same reason she brags much of her ancestry and is long on D. A. R.'s, Colonial Dames, and what not. This will explain the class of readings a girl cares for and the kind of books women get at the libraries. Teachers take note.

The voice teacher must know just how to conserve the boys' voice when he is passing through the period of puberty, and the girl's strength when she is maturing.

The physical training teacher will note that a girl's gait is less steady than a boy's,and that she carries her head less erect.

Girls love bright colors and ought to make good milliners and florists.

If girls expect to go into laboratories where exactness, fineness and dexterity are required, they must prepare more thoroughly than boys, in order to make up for deficiencies.

The teaching profession is especially adapted to women for various reasons that have already been mentioned.

Girls have many friendships, but few real friends. Teachers should discourage girls from being "chummy" and having "crushes." A good way is to get them interested in one poet, one author, one character in history, and trust to transfer of training to one friend.

When boys or men get mad they fight it out with fists, and then proceed to forget it. Not so with girls or women. They bite, scratch, slap, pull hair, scream, and hold a grudge a long time.

Girls of today, just as in the past, are long on talk. Not only do girls speak earlier than boys, but they work at it harder and

put in more hours a day. An uneducated woman can express herself better than an uneducated man.

Because of the pre-eminence of woman's emotional nature (due to the larger viscera, seat of sympathetic center) she takes to religion, missionary meetings, aid societies, culture-aesthetic clubs, mediumship, charity, mercy, the sick, the friendless, the helpless. The sorrowing find in her a well-spring of comfort. She does not ask is the cause or person worthy, but needy. Her faith rises above all discouragements and is never killed by ingratitude. She forgives one she loves, especially if related by ties of blood, seventy times seven. She is first at the cradle and last at the grave; last at the cross and first at the sepulcher.

Courses in the social sciences would help girls to be intelligent in their dealings with unfortunates; else their emotional attitudes may do harm instead of good to this class of people. Teachers who know girls' psychological make-ups should lay much stress on truth-telling and open-above-boardness.

Shall we train boys and girls alike in view of all the foregoing?

Thorndike says: "In vocational interests we must train differently because of the place each will occupy in after life. Other interests and attitudes, not due to training but inherent (he recognizes both innate and acquired characteristics) ought to be taken care of in secondary schools."

Inglis writes: "In the United States boys and girls are grouped together for instruction, except in private schools and some large high schools. Foreign countries separate the sexes. In co-education, if sex differences exist, the administration has a problem on its hands."

A plea is made for segregation, so that—

(a) The boys may not be overwhelmed by the girls' superiority in school work.

(b) That subjects may be given in which boys have native ability and where they can show what they can really do.

(c) The earlier maturity of girls physically means also earlier mental maturity, Segregate and train according to mental age.

(d) Co-education may lessen the development of finer feminine qualities and more virile masculine qualities.

(e) Boys need more men teachers in the secondary schools to set manly ideals.

(f) As 90% of all girls will eventually become wives, mothers and housekeepers, why load down with mathematics and abstract sciences, when domestic sciences, arts, music and literature will conduce to happy, satisfied womanhood.

(g) Boys will need manual dexterity, the sciences, higher mathematics. Give it to them in allopathic doses.

(h) Those girls who know positively that they will be bachelor-maids and want to go in for the professions and sciences, pick them out and train them intensively with the boys.

(i) Those boys who feel they are cut out for housekeepers and caretakers of children, pick them out and train them intensively with the girls.

You see, you pays your money and you takes your choice. The secondary schools are here to serve the dear public.

On the whole, however, we believe that man's native equipment is better adapted to a hard and strenuous environment. This fits him well for protecting his mate and offspring, and his education should emphasize physical endurance, daring, adventure, pioneering into untried paths; in short, in subjugating the forces of nature and making himself their master.

Women's nature being strong in faith, love, altruism, patience, religion, and the things that make life more tolerable, should be given a chance to develop along these lines.

The two, then working together, will bring the race on toward perfection, unity in diversity.

Different? Yes; but not necessarily inferior or superior in the kind of work each is destined for in the course of evolution.

In order to scientifically compare and evaluate two factors they must be alike. That is where we have been making our mistake, by saying "this one is superior" and this one is inferior." And the end is not yet.

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Redirecting Commercial Education in Our Public Schools

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THE aim of commercial education today is to equip young people for entrance to business life. If we go back to the beginning, we find that in the last half of the nineteenth century commercial education in this country was given principally in private schools which were conducted mainly for a profit. These private schools had a very few entrance requirements and had students of various ages. For many reasons these schools over-emphasized a few subjects, and some of the most important subjects were never offered. These schools grew out of schools of penmanship; following penmanship there came bookkeeping; and after this commercial arithmetic, spelling, letter-writing, and business English.

About 1880 there was a changing conception of education, which led the larger public high schools to furnish commercial education, almost free, to the people of school age. Other high schools gradually followed the plan of the larger high schools by adding such abbreviated courses as were taught by the private business schools. These changes were made so rapidly a few years ago that it was impossible to secure qualified commercial teachers to instruct in the high schools of the country. The educators had not made a thorough study of this phase of education, so it has resulted in an antiquated commercial course in many high schools, being similar to the old private business college. The reason for this is partly due to securing instructors and texts for commercial subjects in high schools from business colleges.

Today the larger part of commercial education is furnished by the public schools, and only in the larger cities does one find the

business college being a success. The student body of a business college is now made up from two classes of people. In the first group will be found persons too old to attend the public high schools, and in the other group will be found those who want to get a commercial training in less time than it can be secured in the public schools.

So, if commercial education is going to meet the needs of business life in the future, it must be re-directed. By re-direction is meant that commercial education must render social service rather than to carry forward traditional elements and information. The commercial course, as it is understood to mean, should be made liberal and at the same time narrow enough to fit one for some particular line of business life. The course should be a group elective in the senior high school, and only those subjects which are listed with the social studies,—history, civics, and probably geography and economics, would be among the required subjects for commercial students. These subjects are seldom thought of as commercial subjects, yet a commercial course is not complete unless it contains these subjects. In fact, they are the most essential part of the course. The direct values of these subjects are realized in the common knowledge and training which individuals of a democracy must have in order to live together as free and responsible citizens. In this connection a report of the commission for the reorganization of secondary education states* that "The time heretofore devoted to the social studies in the commercial curriculum has not been adequate to prepare for the needs of citizenship. In the reconstruction period following the Great War the American citizen will need an even broader outlook on conditions abroad, and a clearer understanding of economic and social conditions at home. For those who are to enter commercial occupations the social studies are, and will continue to be, especially important, because business itself is a social undertaking. True success in business necessitates an understanding of social needs and social institutions, including a knowledge of

* National Education Association, Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1919, No. 55.

economic principles, but also its peculiar responsibilities in promoting the welfare of society. For these reasons the commercial curriculum should provide thorough training in social studies." From such reports as this we find that many commercial courses in our high schools do not provide such training, or where such training is being offered it does not form a part of the required work for commercial students.

The question has often been asked: "When may commercial education properly begin?" In answering such a question it will lead us over many discussed problems. It is a settled fact that the general technic for all future education is acquired in the elementary grades. Handwriting is one of the tool subjects being taught in the elementary grades that does not always meet the requirements of commercial life, so for this reason a part of commercial education may begin in the primary grades.

It is getting to be similar to the wave of a red flag to even mention "penmanship" as a subject in our school system. The reason for this is probably due to the fact that writing has been over-emphasized by many penmen who have never studied the field of education and is again poorly practiced by psychologists and other educators. Let the subject of handwriting be studied more from both viewpoints, as we are beginning to do, and we shall have an indispensable subject taught more from the practical and less from the artistic viewpoint. There is no use of arguing whether good writing is second in value to good speech or not, but the ability to write a good hand enables the pupil to effect a greater saving of time in all his subjects, for himself, his teachers, and all concerned. Handwriting in the first six grades of our public schools may be taught with only one purpose in view, and that is as a tool for further learning. Too much time should not be devotel to movement drills, but the matter to be written should constitute the drill. To begin, pupils should not be taught or encouraged to use pencils or pen and ink the first year. All of their writing should be at the black-board, where they get a free use of the large muscles of the arm and

shoulder. It is true, the public would have to be educated, as they were when we stopped teaching the alphabet to beginners. If this were done the pupils would not have a lot of wrong habits to be broken up in later years. The second year may be devoted to teaching the pupils how to sit and hold pencils in a natural, healthful position, and how to use a combination arm and finger movement with enough speed to do practical work. A very little attention to letter-formation should be attempted until the third year. In the fifth and sixth grades writing may be taught with composition work in general. Here the supervisor of writing should examine all of the pupils' written work, rather than to take up some specimens which were executed during the formal writing period. If writing were correctly taught in the first six grades, it would not have to be taught longer as a required subject. At the end of the sixth grade the pupil should have his writing in such a shape as will serve him in most lines of work, unless he chooses a business education. Business men often make writing the deciding factor in employing new help or in making promotions, and for this reason alone it seems practical to offer writing in the senior high school as a prerequisite to commercial subjects. It is in the high school and college that different methods of instruction have to be used because of the lack of the proper kind of writing instruction in the first six grades.

In the junior high school we may offer various prevocational opportunities; yet it seems unwise to offer a complete technical training of any kind to pupils of this age. Preparing for business is just as important an undertaking as preparing for any of the professions. No one would think of giving a course in dentistry, medicine or law in the junior high school, yet some have the idea that we can give junior high school pupils a business training. For a better class of business graduates we have to wait until the pupils get older before offering training in technical subjects, such as typewriting, shorthand and bookkeeping. The business field is not open to such people. The pupils who will want to choose commercial elucation will get the most vital part of the

course through the required social subjects, such as geography, civics and history, which may be required subjects in the junior high school. A few of the elementary commercial subjects, such as business arithmetic, business writing and correspondence, could be offered as electives. The names should not be misleading, and the nature of the subjects such as will be of some practical use to the pupil if he should quit school or continue the commercial training.

The technical commercial subjects can no doubt be safely offered as an elective group in the tenth, eleventh and twelvth grades. In the senior high school the pupil gets the most valuable part of his commercial education out of the required subjects, such as English, history and civics. This is one place the commercial education of the public school surpasses the training of the private school. The technical commercial subjects should fit into the senior high school curriculum and so grouped that pupils have attained something worth while when the course is completed.

In the first place the same credits should be given for commercial subjects as for other subjects in the senior high school. Then, in planning a course, it does not seem advisable to have too many pre-requisite subjects, and such pre-requisite subjects may be met by examination in a great many cases. Owing to the fact that business men do not want bookkeepers who cannot write well or figure accurately and with reasonable speed, it seems advisable to make writing and business arithmetic pre-requisites to bookkeeping. No one should be allowed to take up stenography unless taken in connection with typewriting. The second year of typewriting would be of no practical use to any one except those preparing to become stenographers or typists. The schools that offer a two-year course in stenography and typewriting should keep it confined to the eleventh and twelfth grades, owing to the fact that the pupils should finish the required subjects before taking up the technical subjects. If the technical subjects were allowed to be taken earlier than this it often happens that the pupils reach a high degree of proficiency in the technical subjects and quit

school to take a position before getting the essential subjects which are of real value, such as English, history and civics.

In addition to the required subjects, in a small senior high school the following outline is suggested for commercial subjects:

Business Writing. One-half year, if properly taught in the elementary grades. No pre-requisites. Offered to all grades, but ordinarily to the tenth grade pupils who aim to take up office work.

Business Arithmetic. One-half year. No pre-requisites. Offered to all grades, but ordinarily to tenth grade pupils.

Commercial Geography. One-half year. No pre-requisites. Offered to all grades, but ordinarily a tenth grade subject.

Bookkeeping. No credit for less than one year. Pre-requisites: Business Writing and Business Arithmetic. Offered in the eleventh and twelfth grades only.

Commercial Law. One-half year. No pre-requisites. Offered in the eleventh or twelfth grades only.

Stenography. No credit for less than one year and must be taken in connection with typewriting. Offered to eleventh and twelfth grade pupils only. No pre-requisites.

Typewriting. No credit for less than one year. Offered to eleventh and twelfth grades only. The second year of typewriting must be taken in connection with shorthand, or with a view to some practical use. No pre-requisites.

Economics. One-half year. Offered to eleventh or twelfth grade pupils only. No pre-requisites.

Salesmanship. One-half year. No pre-requisites. Offered to any pupil in the high school.

It will be noted that Business English and Business Spelling as subjects are not given in the above outline. It does not seem necessary to offer separate periods for such work if the English department does its part. At one time they were considered as separate subjects, but they can be taught in connection with other subjects with as good results. Office Practice is another subject that can be correlated with the second year typewriting or book-

keeping. In fact, these subjects are not properly taught without office practice considered.

There seems to have been no real value derived from having salesmanship in our high school curriculum in the past, nevertheless it seems to be one of the most vital parts of business. Many schools have dropped the subject from the curriculum, stating that it cannot be taught but can only be acquired by actual practice. This seems to be a poor excuse for not teaching a subject that we are so vitally interested in, for all of us have something to sell. No doubt the reason for dropping salesmanship from the high school curriculum is because the teachers are not prepared to handle the subject in a great many instances, although a text book suited for high school use has not been obtainable until recent years.

There is too large a gap between business life and the commercial schools and they can be connected up. Business men have learned that the commercial school graduate has a few abstract principles but must go through a thorough course in business training before he can do things worth while. To overcome this situation the commercial instructor should first make a survey of the industries of the community; then the pupils may be fitted for the business needs of that community, as well as for neighboring communities. The high school could arrange for some practical work for its pupils in the school during each day. The teachers of shorthand and typewriting may have their pupils do practical work for high school teachers, business firms, and various clubs in the community. Such work can be assigned to certain pupils and make it a substitute for work in the text book. Of course, no typewritten work should be allowed to go out from the school that is not absolutely perfect, for the same reason that the pupil should be held to high standards in all his school work. Many times business men and others for whom the work is done do not object to corrections, but instructors should let them understand that the school is fitting pupils for business life, and if wrong habits are permitted in school, chances for errors will be

greater when pupils go out from school. When such high standards are held it takes more time and stationery, but those things may be taken into consideration when free office help is obtained which the school gives. Sometimes a small charge for such work can be made, and such funds so built up can be used for sending pupils to typewriting contests or for other similar uses. Pupils taking the bookkeeping course may not be allowed to complete the course until some practical office work is successfully done. Many times small sets of books may be found about the high school to give some practical service and will be a help to the high school organizations. Business men have work that advanced pupils can do on week-ends, holidays, and during the summer vacations, for which they will be glad to give a small hourly wage. Let the commercial department of the high school be a real service to the community, and then we shall have bridged the gap between the school and business. After this is done the business men will begin to look to the school for help.

Commercial education will never be at its best until better instructors are secured. The business college graduate usually has some practical experience in business, but often lacks a training in those subjects which are very necessary, such as psychology, methods of teaching, and other subjects that tend to broaden the mind of the instructor. Often the normal school or college graduates know very little about practical business principles. The best teacher of commercial subjects is one who has had a thorough training in the subjects that are to be taught, a reasonable amount of teaching experience, a great amount of training in educational subjects, and one or more years of practical business experience. The commercial teacher should never let an opportunity pass to meet the business people in the community. To do this the teacher may join the chamber of commerce, call on business men and invite them to talk to commercial classes.

The director of commercial education in the future has one of the best opportunities for real service and can go a long way towards making our schools more practical.

The College and the People

Wallace N. Stearns.*

N occasional Sunday mornings I journey on an interurban bus. Probably every man on the car, barring myself, is a miner, and naturally industrial problems are up for discussion. The solution proposed is equal distribution of capital. "But how long," I ask, "before the other fellows have it all again, and you and I have none; then what?" "Divide it up again," is the answer. "It's coming," says another, "and the sooner it comes to blows the better." That the miners have grievances is quite true. But that there is a smoldering spirit of revolt must be duly noted.

Filling a gap one Sunday morning in a rural church, I found among the meager audience no one to play the organ, neither could I find any one to start a hymn, nor even to follow after. Selecting the long-meter doxology as the most likely venture, I started off alone. One sister trotted her foot and I sang, following it up with a prayer for presumptuous sins.

Entertained in a country home, where I was shown blooded stock innumerable, the father and I sat down to visit; whereupon the said father took up his lament for children who either would not stay on the farm or were no good if they did. The answer was plain. One had only to compare sumptuous stables with a bare, comfortless home.

Standing in front of a little thunder-struck country church at the close of an institute, I listened to the plaint of a worthy distressed. "Is it not strange," she queried, "that our children do not stay with the Church?" I looked back at the faded, anti-

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quated structure, with its squalid surroundings. "Is it not strange," I replied, "that they stay as long as they do."

Thousands of villages and communities drift on from year to year, while boys and girls grown up are getting out into what they call the world, and fathers and mothers do nothing but moan and get ready as best they can for the inevitable day when the old home must be sold. Even the old-fashioned spelling-school, singing-school, husking-bee, quilting-bee are passing, and only commercialized entertainment remains to break in on the stagnant life of the neighborhood.

Picking up a weekly paper, one that reaches thousands of homes in village and country, my eye fell on the "Exposition" of the Sunday-school lesson for the following Sunday. A syndicated article, appearing in hundreds of papers, the said article set forth in demonstration by dint of exegesis and ingenious eisegesis, doctrines ridiculous if it were not that they find such wide acceptance. And thousands of preachers and Sunday-school teachers become nothing better than theological tree-toads and propagandists of hideous errors.

On my table as I write is an announcement of a labor school, and there is much of good as well as ill. I believe the idea is good, but there are too many hints of class division, getting even, and hints of theories ill-spun and provocative of class hatreds. These people have a right to education, to the best in education, and to wise, sympathetic leadership. Already a few of our colleges have seen a vision of service and opened their doors, to find that the school of experience has produced ability to think, and that all wisdom is not shut up within academic shades.

Here is the frontier of today. It knows neither latitude nor longitude. It passes through every village, hamlet, city and community.

I believe that an increasingly desperate situation calls for a speedy and, I feel sure, possible solution. Two agencies are at hand,—the Church and the College. Ofttimes the high school ministers locally, but such service depends on the will of a chance superin-

tendent or principal, and is consequently desultory and uncertain.

We are here to discuss the ministry of the College in such cases as these. What can the College do? That the maintenance of a standard college course on high grade is the first duty, goes without saying and is to be accepted at the start. Colleges are rapidly localizing, and as the College depends largely on its bailiwick or area for support, so the College is indebted to its area for the maximum service. Between civilization and chaos stand a row of Colleges, in close touch with the people, best prepared to understand conditions, and under obligation to provide leadership, an institutional Moses, as it were, to lead the way to better things.

The experiences mentioned at the outset suggest four forms of activity:

1. There is need of a man in religious education who can visit struggling churches, build up intelligent work in the Sunday-school, by institutes and lectures arouse interest in profitable Bible study, induce more business-like methods of finance and administration, and open blind eyes to a score of needed ministries for a church to render a community. A living church is one that is alive seven days of the week. Eighty-five per cent of the church's membership comes through the Sunday-school and religious education. An efficient church must be none the less spiritual, but also social as well. A church with a program is a winning church. Four factors make a town: a factory or similar institution, a bank, a public school, and a church, and not the least of these is the church.

2. A second man needed is one versed in economics and related sciences. He should be able to debate and to instruct in fundamental questions of Capital and Industry, and so get each to see the other's point of view. Here the Church cannot help, for these men will not be found in or near a church. The town hall, the public school, lodge hall, and even the soap-box on the corner must serve as a forum. To any live man in such a field I promise abundance of labor and excitement.

3. A third ministry is that of music. With the old-time schoolhouse went the singing-school. Phonographs and player-pianos have completed the work of neglect, and today why should a person play or sing when he can hear better by putting on a record? We need an awakened interest in community singing, in orchestral music, individual talent in instrumental and vocal music. The effort must be taken into the homes of the people. It is often too late when young people get to college, and the great majority never reach a college at that. In a certain considerable section in the Middle West the proportion of college people to entire population is one to six thousand. Other sections are little better. One of the greatest menaces to our moral welfare is to be found in the horde of cheap, vulgar tunes, and worse verses accompanying, that swarm from our presses. Insidious, not so vile as to repel, yet all trending in the same direction, the demoralization of morals. Even some of our so-called religious music is corrupting of taste,—shallow music and strange rhymes. Too much we are making easy the path and smooth the way for jazz music and abominable verses that are scant coverts for literary filth. Steady dropping wears away the stone, and such music can only break down eventually the moral standards of succeeding generations.

4. There is need of better country life, more intelligent, more livable, more enjoyable, more profitable. Competition is driving the inefficient from the farm; the disappearing of public domain is rendering a fresh start in life more and more impossible. Young people grow up on the farm who are destined by nature and preference for other forms of life, nevertheless what we need in the country is not a "back to the farm movement," but a "stay on the farm" movement, encouraging those prepared by birth and fitness to seek on the farm the fulness of life that every live persons craves. Better living conditions are needed, more attractive homes, modern conveniences, means for entertainment, and better training, a sense of what is best in the world, and better community life through organization, under right auspices, of

the forces of the community for recreation, entertainment and social life. Rural organization and rural economics are roads to the new library of the modern farmer, viz., bank-book, check-book, pocket-book.

It will indeed be a happy conclusion if, with elementary agricultural departments, the several denominational and other rural movements co-operate in the form of instructorships in rural life, social and religious, or if, indeed, these said movements result in such permanent collegiate functions.

The College should seek to be in touch with every individual within its area; to co-operate with every educational agency—the high school in its local field, and with other colleges—in making sure that every family has been reached; to line up with the churches in a united effort for social and spiritual betterment. This is the new College parish. We are still a long way from being over-educated, in fact, not so far away from an appalling ration of illiteracy.

The average college stands idle nearly four months every year. Instead of two semesters a year, why not divide the year into three periods, increasing administrative and teaching staffs so that work and workers may be kept up to proper pitch. It may be necessary, it is increasingly popular, to limit attendance. It is also good psychology, good advertising. Hoi Polloi prefer to go where they are prohibited. "Keep off the grass" is not so effective as "Stay on the walks." Nevertheless the truth remains, the great obligation on the College today is to reach the largest possible number in the shortest possible time. It is argued that high tuition rates do not lessen attendance; that families unable to pay high prices have no disposition to educate. From my brief knowledge of history I doubt this, and, further, education is for him who needs it, as well as for him who wants it or can pay for it.

The Role of Pedagogic Psychoanalysis in Mental Tests and Measurements

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WE approach this subject, not from the limited viewpoint of the pedagogic psychoanalyst (pedanalyst), but rather from the broadened perspective of the school hygiene physician and educator, who has analyzed the fundamentals of this new field in its possible relationship to modern educational endeavor. In reality there is nothing new about pedanalysis except possibly the name. Educators, physicians, sociologists, criminologists and jurists have been grappling with the problems which fall under this heading; from different approaches, it is true, but all, nevertheless centering their final efforts on that eternal enigma, the manifestations of the subconscious mind, which is the pith of the subject of psychoanalysis and its various protean ramifications. In forming his conclusions, the writer has abided by the works of the Swiss School of Pedanalysts as exemplified by the Swiss pedagogue, Dr. Pfister of Zurich, who maintains a neutral attitude (therefore the broader one) on the polemical features of this topic, which have arisen between the Vienna School of Freud, the founder of psychoanalysis, and the Zurich School of Jung and others.

Briefly defined, psychoanalysis is a process of dealing with the subconscious faculties of the mind for the purpose of eliminating harmful impressions (complexes, storm centers, etc.) which find an abnormal vent through manifestations of the conscious mind. Like all additions to the beaten path of scientific endeavor, this study has had its period of scoffs and taunts of the ultra-conser-

vative scientists on the one hand, and the distorted conceptions which manage to reach the lay public through the numerous unreliable channels as another extreme. There have also not been wanting the usual average number who have entered this field with the penchant of the faddist, only to become entirely obsessed by the possibilities of the process, so as to evenutate as one-sided and therefore unreliable in their estimate.

The writer is fully conversant with the tendency of modern psychology to be reluctant in its recognition of the subconscious, which, in most instances, psychologists seek to evade and circumvent in their process of reasoning. The physician and psychiatrist, however, have been confronted with the concrete manifestations of this realm, so that they have had no option but to make a respectable obeisance to the plausibility of its existence, leaving the abstract speculations to the theorist and the instructor, who are safe at least from militant controversion in their premises, in that they are not being constantly called upon to produce tangible results, although there is no denying that the title subconscious does not entirely meet requirements. G. Stanley Hall has well compared the mind to the iceberg, which is seven-eighths submerged. While we are not so much concerned with the exactness of proportion of the conscious and subliminal, it is safe to assert that modern psychology has reached the stage where it must accept the subconscious as an undisputed entity, if any progress is to be achieved in this realm.

The question now arises, how, and in what respects can this process of psychoanalysis assist the educator who is striving by all proven means to arrive at a logical estimate of his ward or pupil. The answer is, that it will help him to solve problems which are even today receiving the same treatment as in the dark ages. By utilizing the process of pedanalysis, we shall be in a better position to understand the pupil who is a deviate or who does not conform to the requirements of what is ordinarily considered a "normal" child. Particularly in the case of the pupil who seem to be in need of extra-curricula instruction by virtue

of manifesting a low I. Q. in his reaction to the general course of study, does this system of analysis appear to offer helpful assistance. The educational world of America is just beginning to awaken from its lethargic stupor in the matter of recognizing the role which physical defects play in handicapping a child with its studies. Never before in the history of education in this country has a Commissioner of Education of the calibre of the recent incumbent, Dr. Claxton, pressed this activity with such emphasis as in his last annual report (1920). Although this report shows evidence of progress, the Commissioner does not hesitate to use the terms, "welter of ignorance and irresponsibility," as applying to those states which are not recognizing the health movement in their systems of education; and strangely enough, he also alludes to the fact that the west sections of our country have made greater progress in this regard than other parts. Granting, however, that average progress is being made in the line of meeting the subject of physical defects, one may well ask, what are we doing to meet the problem which is being continually presented by the so-called retarded child, who seemingly presents no physical defects of any estimable nature, but which, through some complexity in its mental status, is unable to cope with the requirements of the curriculum. In some states laws have been enacted providing for special schools and ungraded classes, etc., to take care of such cases, being assisted in some cases by special appropriations from the state treasuries. The next query which follows in logical sequence is, on the strength of what procedure are we separating the "normal" child from the apparently mentally deficient one? The answer is, by systems of tests and measurements. Now then, on what are mental tests and measurements based in pedagogy? Manifestly, upon the conscious reactions of the pupil to the stimulus of the system of tests to his environment, as elicited by the tester. Under the old system of psychology, which placed nearly all of its stress on the conscious motives of the pupil, this may have been admissible, but today, with all the substantial evidence of the activity and

influence of the subliminal, emanating from uncontrovertial quarters, it should be recognized that any system which refuses to take heed of this fact, is laying itself open to the charge of retrogression, if not injustice, or even worse epithets.

Among some of the facts which place pedanalysis on the list of necessities in the armamentarium of the educator, is the outstanding one that the very manifestations which cause the educator to place the child on the subnormal plane very frequently arise from some complexity of the subconscious paths in the mind, and when this is determined by analysis and adjusted, the pupil takes his place among the normals. In his experience as a school physician, the writer has examined hundreds of children preparatory to the process of mental tests and measurements. It is a matter of no small relevancy that a very small proportion of these were found suitable for individual instruction in special schools. The greatest number were eventually either sent back to their regular rooms or placed in ungraded classes, with a special suggestion to the teacher to try and "reach" the pupil by paying special attention to some particular phase of instruction. What does all this suggest? Is the curriculum wrong? Since the great majority seem to be making rational progress in conformance with community and economic demands, we must assume that the course of study is as efficient as modern enlightenment in pedagogy permits. Was the psychology taught at the normal school or teachers' college at fault, in that only the conscious mind received recognition? The writer believes that herein is contained the crux of the matter. So long as prospective teachers are taught simply to deal with the superficial reactions and conscious manifestations of the child mind, without giving consideration to the origin of the conscious evidences, so long will we be in the dark and continue to squander time and energy in attempting to arrive at a justifiable conclusion.

It is a fact long recognized by psychiatrists that experiences of childhood, particularly of the disagreeable sort, impress themselves indelibly upon the subconscious regions of thought. If the

hereditary fibre is of sufficiently strong content to neutralize and overcome these impressions, then we have what custom is pleased to call a "normal" child. Only too frequently, however, this is not the case, as is well known, and instead there result storm centres around these impressions, which, so to speak, seek to "get even" with destiny for having caused them. As the child grows older, it is taught that the conventions and social usage demand that certain manifestations and inclinations be repressed. It is this system of repression in all individuals which defines and characterizes our personalities according to the resulting reactions which we produce to our environment and circumstances. In reality, everyone seems to possess peculiar and irregular channels for the outlet of repressed storm energy.* In some individuals this process attains an intensity which causes them to be characterized as eccentric, or some other designation.

All children, however, are not able to utilize this system of repression demanded by the code of ethics and society. Sooner or later, therefore, this pent up hurricane finds an outlet through a conscious channel, and the child is immediately considered as a deviate from the regular type. The increased attention which the child begins to elicit does not tend to help matters any, for it causes him to attempt to utilize more repression, which only serves to aggravate matters, and sooner or later the pupil is being tested by the Binet-Simon, or an equivalent, which tests, as suggested above, are far from being satisfactory. A necessarily delicate situation arises also in these instances between the school and the future relationship of this child to society. The stigma of mental deficiency which is placed upon a child by the conscious route of analysis is remembered only too well by a social system with stone-hurling proclivities, so that parents cannot be much censured for removing their children to private schools or resorting to some other avenue of evasion from the decision of the old psychological routine. It must not be assumed that the writer

* See The Relation of Sex and Cultural Repression to Social and National Progress. American Medicine, Nov. 22. By the writer.

is herein referring to the greater number of children who are really in need of individual instruction by virtue of some hereditary or acquired organic defect of the nervous system. What we seek here to consider is the child with a functional disturbance, in whom the origin might be traced by expert pedanalysis, and possibly rectified. And even if the results be few and far between, they will have been worth while if they succeed in accentuating the factors of fairness and justice in connection with effectiveness.

Another noteworthy factor which is being brought into the limelight through the work of psychoanalysts in pedagogy, is the militant influence which is being exerted upon the young child by the sex impulse. In other words, evidence is being accumulated* to the effect that certain conscious manifestations on the part of children of the pre-puberty period, which we have hitherto been accustomed to consider as erratic actions, bad habits, or in the most lenient sense, precocity, are simply reactions arising during the process of the natural sex development of the child. A great error of the past, which is gradually being rectified today through the efforts of sociologists and the medical profession, is that in the layman's code, and to a great extent in the prudish ideals of the pedagogue, the sex instinct has been invariably associated with the sensual and unfit; therefore, in the young pupil it must according to past customs, always be considered as an anti-social disclosure. The most tragic chapters in the world's history have been written with the "pen" of sex ignorance. It is reasonable to assert that in the next few decades, the newer generation of educators will smile with pity at the stupid orthodoxy of today, which invariably evades serious problems if they harbor the slightest tinge of the sex question in their content.

In this connection it may be stated that one of the serious mistakes which have been committed by the genius who gave the psychoanalytic methods to the world, was, that in presenting the subject of sex importance in its relationship to conscious manifestations of subconscious repressions, Dr. Sigmund Freud per-

* See works of Freud, Jung, Adler, Pfister, and others.

mitted his frank Teutonic conception and possibly a narrowed perspective in psychology, to give a sexual elucidation to everything that could possibly be linked up with the sex factor. This has resulted in the charge of "pansexualism" being hurled at the Vienna psychiatrist from both Europe and America, and has caused some of his most brilliant pupils to abrogate their allegiance to his school in Vienna and develop other systems of psychoanalysis in Switzerland and elsewhere. In 1910 Freud partially rectified this mistake by qualifications which made it apparent that his reference to the term "libidio" and sex were more akin to the English designations of love in the abstract, when he referred to many phases of disclosure of the subconscious channels. In his work, "Psychoanalytic Method," Dr. Pfister of Zurich records cases particularly relevant to our topic, in which the conscious display of some hidden repressions, such as fear, hate, and the incest (Oedipus) complex, disclose themselves in the forms of untruthfulness, cruelty to animals, so-called bad habits, passion for destroying things, aversion to school work and other tasks; kleptomania, stuttering, and various phobias. Oftimes an apparently meaningless grimace and contortion which frequently arouses the wrath of the unsophisticated pedagogue, to be followed by exemplary punishment, has its real root in an unconscious repression which must be diligently sought for, reached and rectified. Frequently the superficial reactions, such as talking back to a teacher, in an unconscious manner disclose the fact that the personality of the teacher has failed to reach the child, or perhaps a natural antipathy is developed toward the teacher if that personage happens to be lacking in tactfulness in meeting the problems of discipline, which in itself is a serious matter for consideration, and the psychology of which the writer has discussed elsewhere.*

In defining the subliminal or unconscious, Freud states: "The unconscious is the infantile, and that particular part of a person which has been separated from the personality during the early

* See magazine Education, Nov. 1920.

years of childhood, and hence has been repressed." Commenting on the relationship of this assumption to the acts of the grown child, which often have a direct connection with the suppressed impulse, Dr. Pfister states: "Guarding and directing, as giver of the law, dispenser of ethics, pedagogic activity rules over humanity with a power little dreamed, if the psychoanalysis of Freud is correct." The influence of infantile impressions upon the adult of mature years and upon his works have been recognized, not only by psychologists of the past, but by disciples of art and its various presentations to society, such as poetry, music, painting, etc. The great fact which is dawning upon those who deal with deviate mentalities, is that there is a constant regression to the above mentioned impressions of childhood. O. Rank, in his "Die Lohengrinsage," page 134, quotes the German composer, Richard Wagner, as stating: "All our wishes and ardent inclinations, which, in truth, carry us over into the future, we seek to fashion from pictures of the past into sensual perceptibility, in order to gain for ourselves the form which the modern present cannot furnish them."

In conclusion, we are constrained to adduce that heretofore the methods and content of educational endeavor have dealt too concretely with the pupil and his needs, recognizing only as suggested above, his conscious requirements and mode of progress. This explains definitely the factor of likes and antipathies which have arisen in the past as a barrier to a better understanding between school and society. If, out of a hundred pupils, pedanalysis will succeed in reaching ten pupils and save them from the stigma which attaches to the cognomen of mental defect, then we must accord this system a place in our departments of tests and measurements in educational institutions. By neglecting to utilize all possible means in arriving at a just and logical conclusion in mental examinations, educational systems like individuals fall into the category charged by the eminent psychiatrist Jung, who, in his "Der Inhalt die Psychose," page 25, states: "He who observes himself attentively and relentlessly, knows that a being

dwells within him who gladly disguises and covers up everything difficult and questionable in life, in order to carve for himself a free and easy path in life."

Who will deny that among the brilliant minds which have passed through the ages, the early records of their mental attainments lead one to conclude definitely that an examination of their mentalities by the conscious reaction route, would have resulted in a comparatively low I. Q. as conceived in the present terminology. It is a pertinent fact that juvenile police courts of today are calling in the assistance of psychiatrists, who help diagnose any possible functional nervous origin for the criminal manifestation. Why then shall we not do as much for the socially conforming child who comes and goes peaceably to and from school and home. Although not directly relevant to our topic, another great field of usefulness which will be included in the process of pedanalysis is the solving of the enigmatic factors which lead to the choice of a vocation. To some this will sound like a hazardous presumption, but the fact remains that the greatest barrier in vocational guidance has been met through reactions based on factors entirely apart from the conscious mind.

In concluding his excellent work on psychoanalysis, Pfister remarks: "An immense field is opened to the analyzing educator in the salvation of those who are not sick in the medical sense, yet have their lives blighted and destroyed as a result of continued unconscious anachronisms."

The Value of the Classics

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IN this so-called practical age many of the subjects which have been considered of great importance in our educational system seem to be losing ground. Among these is the study of the classical languages. The value of the classics is, in my opinion, greatly under-estimated by most people. The benefits derived from the study of Latin and Greek, instead of being comparatively small, are, on the other hand emphatically great. Their study gives one greater familiarity with the English language in all its forms of syntax, greatly increases one's vocabulary, and elevates one's style of English, both oral and written. Historical occurrences and mythological references are fixed more vividly in one's mind, and the peculiar origin of many of our present-day customs is revealed.

Although many persons argue that the classics are dead languages, their claim can hardly be allowed. Why? Because we are using many Latin words in our every-day conversation. Latin verses, Latin law and court terms are seen every day in papers and magazines, and there is much pleasure and satisfaction in being able to translate them. The classics, from a fundamental standpoint, cannot be dead, since a large percentage of our English words is derived from them. After studying Latin and Greek one has a dictionary of his own safely stowed away in a corner in his mind. When one is reading, if perchance a new word should appear, many times it may be analyzed and its root-meaning derived from either Greek or Latin. This use of a classical dictionary which has a shelf in one's mind is a great pleasure, a profitable time-saver, and is conducive to a more correct use of English. One of the chief arguments against phonetic spelling is that it would destroy all traces of the origin of the words of our language.

After one has made a careful study of the classics, the Romance languages—the French, Spanish and Italian—are the more easily mastered, as they are quite closely related to the Latin. Scientific studies are more readily understood, for nearly all scientific terms have been and are still being taken directly from either Latin or Greek.

Some people conceive the idea that after being graduated from the high school one should be able to converse in classics. 'Tis hardly so, the main object of their study being the training which the mind receives. From a psychological standpoint the mind is made up of three separate departments, viz., that of memory, imagination and reasoning. The study of the classics gives excellent training to these three distinct divisions, which is a great asset in one's life. In the learning of rules and acquiring of vocabularies the power of memory is amplified. In the process of translation a great deal has to be imagined. Pictures of what one is reading need to be clearly depicted in one's mind. One must feel that he is really at the place about which he is reading. Here the power of imagination is expanded. In such languages as Latin and Greek there is much complicated syntax, which must be worked out so as to make sense. In this way our faculty of reasoning is enlarged. The classics are of great value, not only to those who intend to be lawyers, doctors and ministers, but also to men of the scientific and the business world. One's mind is better trained, and this training, secured by the study of the classics, cannot be lost. In short, a true education consists in having the intellect carefully trained from these psychological standpoints, and this may be readily obtained by a thorough study of the classical languages.

The Need of Educational Rejuvenation

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NOT long ago the President of Columbia University, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, in his annual report to the trustees of that institution, set forth what might be termed a characterization of present-day education under such headings as "Making liberal men and women," "Public criticism of present-day education," "The new paganism," and "The university, politics and religion." It is not the purpose here to recapitulate that worthy report, for that has already been done, but to make a few observations partly suggested by the above and partly of a different nature.

The educational system is today undergoing a change, perhaps for the better, perhaps for the worse. In simile it may be likened to the automobile industry of some five or ten years ago. New ideas are continually being suggested by both arm-chair theorists and by earnest experimenters. Change seems to be the watchword. And why? Mainly because the public demands a change. There is a restlessness in the educational world that presages something . . . something . . . But what, no one will hazard a guess. Criticism is rife on all sides. Teachers' salaries are too high or too low. Students are not being prepared for life's work. The teaching forces are inefficient. Knowledge is being particularized or generalized. Efforts are being put forth in the wrong direction. The schools are turning out, too often, persons ruined morally. Especially in the higher institutions of learning throughout the land religion is being scoffed at. Educational centers are becoming camps of moral and political degeneracy. The cultural lines of work are being emphasized and glorified, so that many persons hesitate to take practical work. The larger universities especially are becoming aristocratic, catering to the wealthy class because, as tuition rises higher, fewer persons, except they have wealth, are able to attend. Co-education has been the ruin of the educational system; the sexes should be separated

as formerly. And so one might continue *ad infinitum,* listing the complaints of the public.

But why is there all this criticism? Surely there must be ground for it. Or do people inherently take delight in criticizing, and, because the question of education is so universal and touches so many in every-day life, in order to give vent to their feelings they have picked on this as the object of invidious anathemas? The answer is not clearly evident, for it is not plain that this is the case. Nevertheless, the educational system today emerges from such a rain of criticism *"Cum alguns arranhoes na dignidade,"*—with its dignity somewhat scratched, as the Portuguese aptly say.

It is obviously impossible to examine in detail here all of the accusations made against the educational system, and for that reason the discussion will be limited to a few observations. Perhaps the solution of the problem lies not in perpetual change, but in permanent stability, or, shall we say, a happy medium between the two, of suspended animation? Shall we return to the days of our fathers and follow the path of their scholastic tendencies along a rut? The copy for Bret Harte's "Heathen Chinee" was fished out of the waste basket, where it had been discarded as of no account, in order to supply the publisher's demand. Perchance we may do likewise, and raise up from the dead past scenes from the older educational methods. On the other hand, suppose that educational experts should be employed—men with vivid imaginations—to sit up nights as well as days and invent new schemes with which to drag, push or pull the embryo scholar to the educated stage. In this case the pessimist, who is always with us, will be heard to exclaim: "There is nothing new under the sun. Why shall we always seek the new?"

But does the base of the matter lie with the question of change or inertia? Advancement, of course, can never be made unless there is a change. However, the real solution lies deeper and is more fundamental than that. Let us seek it first of all in the home, secondly in the church, and lastly in the school itself. Our criticism must cease to be after the fashion *à tort et à travers*—

hit or miss—and must become centralized and more accurately directed.

Beginning first with the home, several facts may be noted. Is it not true that too many parents view the school from the standpoint of the taxpayer, rather than from the point of view of a person owning a share in a business in which, figuratively speaking, their children are deposited? Some look upon the school as though they expected to get something for nothing. Some send their children there, often, so that they will be out of the way, or because the law requires it. Many parents believe that as soon as their children are old enough to enter school their own responsibility ends, and what the child is to become depends solely upon what the educational system pleases to make of him. How many parents of university students allow themselves to be hoodwinked by their children's deceit? Does the average parent really know what is going on in school? Whenever questions arise in regard to discipline the lagging interest of the parents comes to a head, and usually takes the offspring's side—for love is blind many times in such cases. It is probably not unjust to say that many parents only take an interest in the educational system when there arises a conflict in which their son or daughter is concerned. Naturally a transient and fleeting display of attention is far from the correct attitude of the parents, and, until this is changed, there can be no hope held forth for more effective and efficient results in present-day education.

The church is another factor which may well be considered. One is appalled today at the number of college students who do not attend the churches. Either the press of studies is so great that they do not find the time, or other more entertaining allurements take them away from church attendance. How many times have students been heard to say: "Why should I go to listen to a dry sermon? I want to be entertained. Haven't I listened to lectures all the week?" The great problem of the church in the university centers is how to popularize religion and make it more inviting to the student class. Some churches have succeeded, but more have failed. As a rule, the greatest number of students

attend the churches where there are soft, easy seats, fine music, and popular lectures, rather than sermons, on every-day problems,—not on the Bible. The minister must have "pep," and be interesting and up-to-date. There must be no antiquated methods, and his stories and illustrations must be new. The minister must be considered a "good sport" by the students. In practically all large universities at present, student-pastors are at work, either individually or in co-operation with the Y. M. C. A. These persons should preferably be young men, and should take work in the institution, if possible, in order to mix well. Churches need to advertise more, as many have realized. Various church student societies are often ill attended because they are neither attractively advertised nor interesting. The church, it may be seen then, has a great task to perform, if it desires to be a factor in the bettering of the educational system.

Turning now to the school, one may observe several matters of interest. In the lower grades and secondary schools the teacher, when her day is completed at the end of her last recitation, closes her books and goes home. Likewise does the pupil; there to be helped in the preparation of the next day's lesson by the interested parent, or allowed to get it the best way possible—which is usually the worst way, if it is gotten at all—by the indifferent parent. How many fathers and mothers have been heard to exclaim to their children: "Aren't we paying to have you taught at school? Why do you come home and ask us all of these questions? Ask the teacher for the answers; don't bother us!" Is it not often true that teachers are more interested in pay-days than school-days? Who is to blame for these conditions?

And what of the universities and schools of higher learning? These are too often mere factories to which the rough product is sent to be polished. Often the material which arrives is impossible of such a finish, and is neglected, to become—well, there are several guesses. It is appalling to see the products often turned out by some high schools, to enter the universities. Many times, and this is not an exaggeration, dense ignorance prevails in regard to common things, for powers of observation have never

been developed. Most of these students would register surprise and alarm if asked to tell something of such men as Plato, Aristotle, Dante, Petrarch, Darwin, Tolstoi, and a host of others of equal prominence. This is not only true of the freshmen who enter universities, but of most college students, including seniors. How many graduating from college would care to be asked to identify the Koran, Velásquez, Copernicus, the Sagas, Tagore, the Donation of Constantine, the Laocoön group, Amadés de Gaula, Easter Island, and the Caribs? Let this be the answer to those who insist that colleges are mainly finishing schools, for students come forth hardly having begun, let alone having finished their education. When weighed in the balance they are found wanting. They have diplomas, but what practical or useful knowledge have they? These sheep-skins are much like certificates of vaccination given patients by a doctor to show that they have been inoculated. But whether it will take or has taken is a different matter. Too many university students go to classes and expose themselves to a subject without even getting a germ of knowledge. And why is this? One reason may be found in the fact that many university professors are more interested in delivering a lecture as quickly as possible and getting to something else—generally their writing—than they are in really teaching anything. Lectures are often too formal, and the contact between teacher and student is only rare and then in a very business-like manner. Again, some students take the attitude that it is an imposition on the part of the professor if they are given more than a certain amount of work to accomplish, for how can they attend all of their dancing engagements and teas with so much studying to do? In most cases, the present-day student in the university works four years continually for marks or grades, mainly with the object of "getting by" in a game of wits with the instructor, and centering his main interests upon social activities and other extra-curricular allurements. In a word, the latter interests in many cases have supplanted the others, so that now many schools have become social centers primarily, except for the student who does graduate work,

and some even do that in order that such a life may be extended a year or so longer.

What then is the remedy for all of this? The question is a hard one to answer and probably no one will venture to attempt it. Changes, however, can and should be made, although it is not the aim here to suggest many. In the first place, as has been done at Columbia University, courses giving a general survey of contemporary civilization may be introduced with profit into institutions of higher learning. Mastering this course should be made a requirement for graduation. Such a subject when given seriously—for school work nowadays needs to be made more serious—and conscientiously, will greatly broaden the minds of students and at the same time create a wider interest in life. In the secondary schools such a course may not be given, but one kindred to it may be suggested under the appellation of World History. This likewise should be made compulsory for all and a prerequisite to graduation.

To these suggestions may be added others which are perhaps more basic, as for example, improved methods of study and teaching in the secondary schools. What is pre-eminently needed today is a better grade of high school teachers. In some states the dispensation of teachers' licenses is a joke, and even in those states which hold themselves up as examples, the type of high school teacher employed often becomes the object of popular disdain. More stringent methods should be used in selecting good teachers and in weeding out the old and inefficient ones. During the late dearth of teachers throughout the country, often school boards hired almost any one, in order that they might keep their schools open. As a result there are now, and will be for some time, a great many persons employed as teachers who have no business to be in that profession.

In many matters, then, the whole educational system needs a thorough overhauling. At present it is in many ways in a rut, which is nothing more or less than a grave with both ends missing. New methods must be devised and old ones revised. Moss-back teachers with antiquated scholastic procedure must be gotten rid

of. "It's good enough for father, it's good enough for me," must cease to be the slogan. Attendance at school must become more serious, for hitherto it has been considered too lightly. Studies have been made too easy. A firmer educational working basis should be built up in the grades by the teaching of more facts and fewer generalities. Educators should not be afraid of making grade work too difficult. For a child at this period of life memorizing is not a task but is often a pleasure, and this verity should be taken into consideration. At this period, too, is the time to commence the study of languages—the fourth grade is not too early in which to begin this—and here also the fact foundations of history, literature, etc., should be laid. But all this, of course, cannot be done on the spur of the moment. A new class of teachers must arise, with such training as to enable them to fulfill these new requirements.

Educational introspection and self-analysis must be the inevitable result of continued public criticism. A change must soon come. The church and home must co-operate with the school. But it is toward the educators that all are looking. And for those who have the responsibility of teaching the coming generations one motto should be held ever foremost: "Look well to the future, and weigh well the end."

Play and Life

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WORK, rest, and play—of this triune our human lives partake their daily portion. Are these also the activities of our lower brethren, the animals? If so, one thing is certain, that is, that the distinction between them is dim with the lowest animals. Only the higher animals make a clear distinction between work and rest. The capacity of a creature for work is a direct measure of its superiority in nature,—superiority in either the sense of Darwin, Carlyle, or of our common Christianity. In the naive life of the lowest animals, all three of these activities are satisfied in an unconscious and harmonious way. However, with self-analyzing man they have given rise to stubborn problems. For man has learned that the secret of fitness is "efficiency." Here is the problem of efficiency that concerns the division of work, rest and play: since play and rest are economically unprofitable, the tendency of "efficient" humanity is to reduce them to a minimum. However, practice has shown that this minimum cannot reach zero. Actually, up to a certain point, the capacity for work depends on the amount of rest and play that is indulged. Hence, in modern industry the aim is not to do away with play and rest, but to make them as effective as possible for the period of work that is to follow.

Like the practical-minded, the theorists too have had their difficulty; and I may add, they have not solved it so easily. Business has taken it for granted that work is the worth-while third. Speculation has been less naive, and wonders still if play and rest are not the elect life and work the necessity. Do we work to be able to play, or play to be able to work? To the practical-minded this question is as profitless as to ask whether

the zebra is a white animal with black stripes, or a black animal with white stripes. The failure both of the practical and the theoretical mind with this problem inheres in a bias entertained by them. The practical mind entertains the blind bias that only work and its profits are worth while in life. The theorist, to be sure, realizes that work, harsh idol of our century, may be only a *means* and not an *end*. The bias of the theoretical mind, however, is just as blind as that of the practical person. It has been the eternal bias of theory to wish to reduce all things to oneness, to simplicity, to uniformity. Hence, the theorist has erroneously imagined with the Epicure that play alone is the good of life, or with Carlyle that work is the only good, or with Buddha that the surrender of ambition and pleasure alone will bring satisfaction. There is a fourth view of life, the view of the poets and of common humanity, in which it is believed (though perhaps not uttered) that life is too complex to be reduced like a chemical to a simple formula. It partakes of work, rest and play in their due proportions; and in the immediate experience of their life is to be found the refutation of that bias which would make life consist of either the one or the other, of work, rest and play.

In the historical theories of play we shall find at once the bias of simplicity and the incompetence of these theories to describe the actual role of play in life. Everyone is agreed that work and play share one quality in common,—that they are active and dynamic phases of life as contrasted with the comparative inactivity of rest. On the other hand, it is equally true that play and rest share a quality not found in work, namely, pleasantness. To be sure, our duties may be pleasurable, but in that case, if we are exact, we shall call them play. We shall see that the conflict and confusion of the theories of play which I shall discuss are due to the attempt to force play either into the mold of work or of rest. We may foresee their failure in view of the fact that play is a more generic concept than either work or rest, for it shares the distinguishing quality of each; it shares pleasantness with play, and it shares the development and profit we ordinarily

attribute to work. We can in this sense say that the lower animals play only and that in their play work and rest are potential. If so, what was gained or perhaps lost, when, with the emergence of man, this primitive play-life, which was life itself, was split into work and rest? To this question I promise an answer after considering the outstanding theories of play.

The Schiller-Spencer theory I count as a pseudo-theory, and I only mention it out of respect to history. It was first proposed by the poet Schiller, and as it now stands is indeed no more than a poetic metaphor. It is further to be observed that Spencer put a much narrower construction on the word than did Schiller. The theory holds simply that play is a discharge of superfluous energy from nerves and muscles. The child is so inclined to play, the theory holds, because its strength is not used up in serious occupations. Both Spencer and the other defenders of this view have made it explain factors in play that the theory, if strictly held to, cannot explain. If the theory is strictly held to, it will maintain that the only function of play is the removal of surplus energy. There have been many "forced" criticisms of this view. Claparede and Patrick declare that the theory will not account for the *form* which play takes. When men play, why do they not simply continue their work? asks Patrick. Of course, Spencer can consistently reply that it is because the parts used in work are tired out. Work *is* play when over-rested. Why do children insist on discharging the energy from their arms by using the hockey-stick instead of a broom? Again Spencer can reply consistently with his view, that in the case of using the broom the energy takes the path of voluntary control, naturally difficult with children, whereas in the case of hockey the energy follows instinctive and involuntary paths that in childhood are so plentifully nourished. Hence the theory does account for the forms of play, and I will add, that it will equally account for all of the objective manifestations of play. What it fails to account for is the logical and psychological aspects of the matter.

Logically, the Schiller-Spencer theory is but one instance of

the fallacy that behaviorism commits over and over again when it attacks a psychological problem. To say that play is a discharge of surplus energy does not distinguish it from any other activity. All activity must involve a discharge of energy; this is not distinctive of play. Nor does the baptism "surplus" save the situation, for the problem to decide is precisely whether the energy of play is any more "surplus" than that of work. Every portrayal of a physiological process results not in an explanation, but in a description. The physiological processes involved in play, far from explaining the play, are themselves the *play to be explained.* A thimble "causes" the shape of the wax in a very different way than the way surplus energy causes play. No doubt play is a discharge of physical energy, but why is it work in one case and play in the other? Tom Sawyer's whitewashing adventure is the type of a million similar problems industry faces every day. Why does the laborer, who has just been using his spade with such pitiful lameness, walk so briskly from his tasks at the sound of the whistle? The difference between work and play is a mental difference which "surplus" energy cannot in the slightest degree image. To conclude, there is in the very name of this theory a confession of failure, for how could energy, as such, be "surplus" at all? It can only be "surplus' 'to a soul that feels its weight; hence the theory smuggles in at the outset a class of ideas that Spencer prided himself in being able to neglect.

The Groos theory of play, though it does not err by excluding the psychical aspect in its consideration, errs in the direction of narrowness just the same, as we shall see. Karl Groos, a psychologist at the University of Basle, in 1896 declared that to resolve the problem of play, it must be considered from the standpoint of biology. His theory, defended by Claparede, holds that play is an activity preparatory for life. To play is an instinct due to natural selection. Every kind of animal has its peculiar way of playing, but they all have this in common, that their play is a preparation for the activities of mature life. The kitten pounces upon a bit of paper tied to a string, young kids amuse themselves

by knocking their heads together; never can these two types of animals be induced to exchange their mode of play. Little girls on the whole prefer dishes and dolls rather than tools and pet horses, while with boys the situation is reversed. The degree of play indulged in depends on the amount of preliminary development needed for the mature activities of the animal. The higher animals must have a longer period of youth to play in, in order to reach the complexity of their species. The young oyster does not have to play long "at being an oyster," but the human infant has to play a long while to be equal to the demands that will be made of his maturity. The Groos theory gains for its support a large body of evidence showing that activity indeed is the factor that creates the organ, as Lamarck contended. The heart, for instance, is functioning when it first appears. Light kept out of the eyes of kittens will show their retinas and occipital lobes arrested in development. Children whose limbs have been amputated in childhood show atrophic motor centers. "It is the function which creates the organ,"—it is play which develops maturity. Carr extends the theory to show that play develops certain social qualities, such as sympathy, leadership, shrewdness, etc. Carr also held that play has a sort of cathartic action, in that it rids childhood of certain inherited tendencies that may turn out harmful if he is not purged of them. For example, the boxing, football, etc., of boys removes the combative instincts of hereditary origin by satisfying them in this harmless way. The question is: why should play in some cases give development to some instincts and destroy others? To save the theory from this difficulty Claparede takes Carr to mean that the energy of the harmful instincts is directed into useful channels by games of contest. Thus he saves the theory that play is only a preparatory and developmental activity.

It will not be a sound objection to the theory to say that play is not preparatory because of the fact that when we play we engage in activities quite different from the serious pursuits of life. To go fishing, hunt for berries, play ball, to swim, coast,

wade, jump and run, will hardly seem preparatory for life in any direct way; but nothing prevents the defenders of the Groos theory from saying that *it is the elements of these activities that are developmental.* The many reflex actions that are developed in play, the general strength and health it gives, are the factors that enter so largely into the labors of mature life. We certainly cannot deny that play is a preparatory activity. The only difficulty of the theory is to hold that play is *this and no more.* The weakness of the theory, like that of Spencer, consists in that it harbors a partial truth. Play is indeed a preparation for life, but it is equally true (which is Patrick's distinctive contention) that play is an end in itself. We have the habit, says Patrick, of describing the play of children as "sham" or "make-believe" or "illusory," while to the activities of mature life we apply the epithets "serious," "important," "significant." It would indeed be difficult to show, as Patrick contends, that the life of grown-ups is any more final than the life of the child. The boy who hurries from the table after a single bite of food, despite the ever-pending hunger of small boys, is surely just as serious about his play as is his father about his bank account. Do we not commit the same fallacy when we speak of education as a "preparation for life"? Is not education and is not play an end in itself, worthy of our interest in its own name? How could education and play be preparations for life, unless in some distinct sense they themselves embody the sting of living? To this extent Patrick is right, but he too errs by too much exclusiveness, for he opposes play to work in all the respects he can discover. Play is the rebellion against work and civilization, he says. It is an atavistic return to the activities of primitive man, it is the casting of foresight to the winds.

There is a fifth theory of play, which we may term the popular theory, a theory which is practiced rather than talked about. In actual life, play indeed has in it the element of rebellion and reversion to the primitive that Patrick emphasizes. Yet, if we ask the average man to justify his play, he is quite adept at

finding an argument to justify the conduct which he already knows to be justified intuitively; he will reply that it will bring to him the rest and skill that he can use again when he works. And far be it from any one to deny that play involves a discharge of "surplus" energy. In other words, play is just as rich as life itself, and the fault of the theorists has been to make one thing of life swallow up all the rest. The error of the practical-minded *was* and *still is* that the life of work is the elect life; but experience has taught them that work is at its best when it approaches play. As our tasks become play, that irksome element which we call "effort" slowly fades away; and perhaps if we could make our lives perfectly into pure play, we should become creators like the gods. The error of the theorists has consisted in supposing that truth is always simple and that a thing is explained when it is reduced to simplicity. They have therefore sought to make play either into a form of work, as did Groos, or into a form of rest, as does Patrick. Or, with Spencer, they seek a still simpler unit, "the discharge of energy."

Those who play rather than muse about play, like to think, however, that play is not a part of life, but is rather life at its best. It is the perfect blend of work and rest. Like aesthetic experience, repose and action are both realized in it. Patrick well observes that in the aesthetic life of the ancient Greeks humanity has made the nearest approach to a life that was pure spiritual play. With human life play has split up into work and rest because of the economic advantage of tension. But to get this advantage we have sacrificed the pleasure element of natural growth. If there is "a pure joy of living," we are inclined to believe that it is shared by such creatures as butterflies and flowers, who merge both work and rest in their pleasant dream-life. It is in the direction of play that education, industry and social life is newly turning. We may rest assured that the impulse to play is a fundamental of all life, and let us beware of a philosophy of pure "progress" from which the world has lately suffered more than from anything else.

A Concrete Problem in School Morals

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THE most important problem at present facing the makers of curricula throughout the country is the question of direct and indirect moral instruction, and doubtless from the clashing of opinions satisfactory systems for character-training will arise. Wise deliberation and wide experience will eventually solve the intricacies of method and suggest the material for assisting the moral development of children. Meanwhile, there are certain ethical questions minor to the large issue but of lasting importance in themselves, which require the careful scrutiny of every teacher in the line from grade school to college. Such a problem, clear-cut and demanding definite solution, was presented by Dean Sills of Bowdoin College in an article published in Education for June, 1915, and entitled, "Character: A Neglected College Entrance Requirement."

"Honor cannot be formally taught, nor can it be inculcated by any system. But the fact that so many college students take lightly the appropriation of another's work, particularly if a written outside task, is to a degree an indictment of the tone that prevails in the high school. The prevalence of copying in the lower grades leads on to slack habits in the high school. Many, probably most, of our high school students would not stoop to do a low or ignoble thing; but there are some who have a class code of ethics and who do not look with severity on cheating. The community should realize that a low tone in the public school is sure to breed citizens whose political ideals are liable to be practical and selfish."

Here is clearly indicated for us a series of morally descending steps. Copying in the lower grades results in slack habits in the high school, which in turn produces a low standard of ethics in

the college. The final product is a citizen whose political ideals are, to say the least, questionable,—the kind of citizen who would scorn to steal by overt act, yet who would rob a government or an impersonal corporation without a qualm of conscience. Here, then, is no abstraction in the field of right and wrong, but a fault, the eradication of which becomes a matter of daily duty. Especially is this true in the elementary school. High school and college must meet the issue also, but in the grade school is the root of the evil.

To begin with, none of us dares quarrel with the term "prevalence," as used by Dr. Sills. We must freely admit that copying is of common occurrence, and further that in grade rooms where it is suppressed that result is brought about rather by the incessant supervision of the teacher than by the will to avoid cheating on the part of the children. Professor Griggs tells us that "to get the value of good habits we must succeed sooner or later in winning the will of the child to some measure of affirmation of the right action." Consequently, in the grade school the children must be brought to feel individually as a matter of conscience, and collectively as a matter of school tone, that copying is beyond the law. But how can this be brought about? Before applying remedies it is necessary to examine causes.

Copying makes its appearance about the fourth grade, with the introduction of formal written lessons, particularly in spelling and arithmetic,—lessons where the pupil begins to judge himself by the mark at the top of his paper. Later, grammar affords an opportunity for appropriating the work of others. Composition in the grade school is free from the fault, partly because compositions are written in school and without notes; partly because of the less absolute standard of correct and incorrect in such a subject. Presenting as original work sections copied from reference books is a form of cheating not found in grade school essays. This is peculiarly a high school problem. Geography and history offer occasion for copying if the written lessons involved become the formal question and answer kind. Cheating will be prevalent in

any subject where the written work requires definite facts or solutions and where a consequent strict marking system makes its appearance. Pupils naturally desire high ratings.

It is pertinent to ask ourselves, what is the attitude of the children themselves toward the question of copying. It seems to differ in their minds from lying, largely because lying is direct dishonesty while copying is indirect, the untruth consisting not in actively affirming copied work to be one's own, but in passively allowing the inference to be drawn. Again, the fault is in no sense a result of poor home training; children from homes good, bad and indifferent may become addicted to it. It is peculiarly a school developed fault. Really sensitive and high-minded children, in a desire to have their work just right, will frequently allow themselves to "compare answers." Thus the fault lacks the class condemnation which is willingly accorded by the children of a group when a single member violates its just laws.

It becomes evident as we examine the subject, that two causes engender cheating: first, the pressure of marking systems; second, a low moral tone in regard to the matter. Underlying both is a third, the oldest, most constant foe of education, laziness. The first cause is objective and must be remedied by removing temptation; the other two are subjective, and here the moral outlook must be influenced and the moral stamina strengthened in every possible way. Let us consider the causes and remedies in detail.

Most teachers would confess that there is something wrong with marking systems in their effect upon pupils. Children have learned to regard the mark as the be-all and the end-all, to focus all their attention upon it as an end in itself, to forget the importance of the "how" as compared with the "what." The mark is an outward and visible sign; the learning process an inward and spiritual grace. The more material objective carries the most weight with the child. Indeed this confusion as to the comparative value of end and means is not limited to childhood. The type of citizen who does not care how he makes his money provided he makes it, is all too familiar. The effort in behalf

of the child's moral welfare must be directed toward reducing in his eyes the importance of the rating given to his written work.

It is a sad fact in most teachers' experience that papers upon which errors have been carefully indicated will be tossed quickly aside as soon as the pupil sees the rating at the top. A further lesson must be planned to call attention to mistakes, or the correction of papers is futile. This is absurd procedure. After the teacher has marked the errors on a given paper, correction should result from the initiative of the child, but such is not the case. The mark's the thing, and the desire to have it a high one supplies a frequent motive for dishonesty. Would it not be effective in reducing cheating if, the errors once checked, the papers received no further rating? The excellent might have a word of commendation, the careless a word of warning, but why anything further? As far as the progress of the class is concerned, it is better for the teacher to spend her time in discovering what misunderstandings and incomprehensions the answers display, rather than in trying to assign to them nicely balanced percents. In the case of the child, the absence of rating would throw the emphasis upon what is to be learned rather than upon what has been accomplished. Nor let it be argued that in thus removing temptation we also remove the incentive to work hard for the attainment of a high mark. We are all agreed that this is not a worthy motive to appeal to, and we have only to examine the list of studies where our marking system has been most definite and stringent to discover the subjects in which the most cheating is done. Marks have proved an incentive to dishonesty, not to honest endeavor. Furthermore, the removal of such a constant temptation is neither flabby nor weak. Children must be taught to resist temptation, but we have no right to subject them to constant moral strain along the same line. A recent writer on moral education says with truth, that "in the presence of a perpetual temptation good intentions wilt like growing corn in a hot Dakota wind."

Let us now turn to the subjective causes. The low moral

standard which permits an otherwise honest child to copy, results from a lack of clearness as to what his act really means. Whenever a fault springs thus from poor reasoning or no reasoning upon the subject, direct ethical instruction is required. In meeting this particular problem, the story-conversation method demonstrated by the English instructor, Mr. Gould, and embodied in his writings, could be used with great success. Older children may be led to see the form of lying involved in cheating, but it would seem, for young children, less confusing to connect copying with theft. This will center attention upon the active rather than the passive ethical situation. The line of thought to be developed should lead from the wrong involved in stealing property to the wrong involved in stealing an idea, whether embodied in an invention, a phrase, or an answer to a school question. When once this reasoning is clearly apprehended by the pupils of the elementary school, college students will feel an honorable regard for quotation-marks, and "Thou shalt not steal" will be given its full content. Direct class instruction can hardly fail to develop moral tone in a given grade, and each of its members will find it increasingly necessary to measure his conduct by the group standard. That is a great gain.

The final citadel which must be captured, however, lies within the individual, and in this case it is a veritable "castle of indolance." Laziness is the ultimate cause of many infractions of school law, and the vigorous stimulation of the will necessary to keep a child up to his particular working limit must be a matter of individual contact between teacher and pupil. Indolence must be combated directly not indirectly, individually not collectively, and though the task assumes serious magniture even for a small class, there is no shirking of responsibility. The child who makes his own task easy by copying the work of another, or by copying from a book, must be made to feel that he personally has lost from his education what that task was meant to teach: that the value to be derived came from doing what was assigned, not in merely attaining the result. This is an idea which children in

the upper grades at least of the elementary school can fully grasp, and it should be brought home clearly and forcibly to those individuals who need it as the first and most necessary step in the learning process. When each child realizes that the study period is his opportunity, whether he recites that day or not, that the effort involved in writing out a given lesson has important and lasting effects, while the result obtained is merely transitory, then copying and indeed cheating in most forms will become vanishing quantities.

The problem of eradicating from school life this particular school fault may seem small and unimportant. We should like to inculcate truth in the large, forgetting that thus it tends to become truth in the abstract. The great difficulty attendant upon systems of ethical instruction lies in the fact that at the time when feeling and thought are focussed upon a given course of right conduct, the chance to act—to round out the psychological circuit—does not immediately present itself. In attacking a matter of daily moral adjustment there is no such difficulty. A class which has discussed the ethics involved in the ownership of a piece of work, has the opportunity in the very next period to inhibit the tendency to appropriate the work of others. The pupil upon whom the teacher has impressed the nobility of overcoming his own laziness has immediate chance to try it. Self-reliance and industry then become live and conscious virtues, not mere words. "Education into citizenship" has been our motto since Colonel Parker. If this matter of cheating in school-lessons tends, as Dr. Sills points out, "to breed citizens whose political ideals are liable to be practical and selfish," then the elimination of this fault must commend itself to teachers as a pressing civic obligation.

American Notes—Editorial

We are very much in sympathy with the object aimed at in the custom of having one particular week in the year observed as Correct English week. One of its specific objects is to call the attention of the young people in the schools to the fact that nearly all of them have fallen into the habit of using much objectionable language, which is an injury to themselves and an offense against good manners. Few of us are invulnerable to the same charge. Habits of speech are as contagious as smallpox,—especially bad habits. We "catch" them as unconsciously as we do the germs of malaria, typhoid, or any other disease. Hence the wisdom and practical good sense of a "clean-up" campaign now and them.

But there is more than this very negative object in Correct English week. It should have in view not only the elimination of that which is bad. It should cultivate our taste for what is good, and increase our ability and pleasure in listening to and using graceful, forceful, effective words whenever we speak with the lips or express ourselves at the point of pencil or pen. There is perhaps no more admirable personal grace than gracious speech. To win such is a worthy object of ambition. It will give us an influence over others that will be uplifting and inspiring. It will bring inspirations and satisfactions that will make life worth living. Correct and graceful speech contributes mightily to happiness and success along all noble and worthwhile lines of personal endeavor and life.

We are somewhat skeptical about definite plans and rules for the cultivation of this desirable virtue or grace of facile speech. Doubtless, however, the study of grammars and dictionaries has its place. Knowledge of Latin is a great help, because so many English words are derived from or compounded of Latin forms, and Latin is a very definite and fundamental language. The mind catches glimpses of fundamental concepts when it thinks in Latin, or in English words that are derived from Latin words. "Substantial foundations," when such a phrase is used, flashes across the mind a picture. *"Sub"* is "under"; *"stantial"* is from *"sto,"* the verb to stand or stay; "foundation" from *"fundo,"* the word meaning to pour,—as iron is poured into a mould to become hardened and fixed in a permanent form. What an impression these pictures make when we are familiar with Latin! How it strengthens our ability to see and feel these word pictures! But Latin and other languages are not absolutely necessary. With a reasonable amount of imagination we can command an

effective vocabulary. Our good old Anglo-Saxon or Celtic heritage will be our day-star to point the way to graceful and effective expression if we once get a vision of the *value* of good English. Fundamental considerations are: (1) Clear thinking—have something to say. Let thought be the basis of speech and nine-tenths of the bad English will be wiped out and disappear. (2) Use as few words as may be needed to convey your meaning. This rule will do away with an enormous amount of vapid, senseless talk, much of which is not only poor English, but poor taste, waste of energy and of time that might be used constructively. This would do away with gossip, and a host of useless, idle repetitions that spoil the beauty and peace of human intercourse. (3) Study and practice the fine art of fitting your words to the thought. "Words fitly spoken are like apples of gold in pictures of silver." There are few accomplishments that are superior to this one. (4) Read the works of the best writers of prose and poetry. Read much and often. Good books are everywhere. Have your favorite authors. Talk about them, discreetly, to others. Create enthusiasm by the quality of what you say about them, rather than by the quantity of your praise. If you thoroughly know one great book and succeed, *really succeed,* in interesting some one else in it, so that he comes to share your enthusiasm, you have done something worth while, whether you have done it in Correct English week or at any other time in the year.

The General Education Board, founded by John D. Rockefeller, announces that the Division of School Surveys will extend the work already inaugurated in co-operation with state and city departments of education. Dr. Frank P. Bachman has been appointed director of this division. He is a gradute of the University of Chicago and holds a Ph.D. degree from Columbia University. After serving as professor of education in Ohio University, he became assistant superintendent of the public schools of Cleveland. Subsequently he was educational expert for the Board of Estimate of New York City. For the last six years he has served on the staff of the General Education Board in local charge of school surveys in Maryland, Delaware, North Carolina and Kentucky; he was also socal director of the survey of the Gary Schools made by the General Education Board. A survey of public education in Indiana under Dr. Bachman's direction is also approaching completion.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals will hold its annual meeting in the Winton Hotel, Cleveland, February 27 to March 1. There will be five sessions, in addition to three round-table

conferences: the junior high school, the small high school, and the large high school. On Tuesday evening the Association will join the rural and elementary school principals in the discussion of the general theme "Administering Public Education in the Interests of the Child and the State." The topics for the other sessions will include educational and vocational guidance, dean of girls, grouping of pupils according to tests, moral training, the place of the junior high school, the overcrowded buildings, place of social affairs, secondary school objectives, effect of compulsory education laws, high school activities, and co-operative government.

Ten years' progress in public provision for the care of children is summarized by Grace Abbott, Chief of the Federal Children's Bureau, in the tenth annual report of the chief to the Secretary of Labor, recently made public. Since 1912, when the Children's Bureau was established, the number of States having special divisions dealing with child health has increased from 1 to 46; the number providing mothers' pensions has increased from 2 to 40; more than half the States have created commissions to make comprehensive inquiries with a view to bringing their child welfare legislation and administration up to standard, and a similar number have organized State bureaus or divisions dealing especially with dependent and delinquent children. Birth registration in an adequate form has been extended over an area including 66 per cent of the population, and 42 States are now co-operating with the Federal Government to reduce the unnecessary loss of life among mothers and babies which the registration figures have shown. There has been an increasing appreciation of the importance of linking up State and local child-welfare administration, Miss Abbott declares; and the medical profession is giving more consideration to the social and economic aspects of child health, while social workers have learned the importance of a physical diagnosis before determining social treatment.

Benjamin Franklin's birthday, January 17, marks the opening of National Thrift Week, observed throughout the country, being fostered by the Y. M. C. A. in co-operation with over forty civic, commercial, educational and religious national organizations. This week affords an unusual opportunity for schools to emphasize the higher thrift related to earning, spending, saving, investing and giving. The days for National Thrift Week, January 17-23, have been designated as follows: Wednesday, January 17, Bank Day; Thursday, January 18, Budget Day; Friday, January 19, Life Insurance Day;

Saturday, January 20, Own-Your-Home Day; Sunday, January 21, Share-with-Others Day; Monday, January 22, Pay-Bills-Promptly Day; Tuesday, January 23, Make-a-Will Day.

Assurances have been received by the National Kindergarten Association, 8 West 40th Street, New York, that persons in Alabama, Connecticut, Florida, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Tennessee and Washington are working to secure, this winter, the enactment of laws providing for the establishment of kindergartens upon petition of parents, such a law having brought California up from ninth to first place in the Union. Eight states, California, Arizona, Nevada, Maine, Texas, Kansas, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin, now have similar laws, and all others should make haste to follow suit, as California is the only state having more than thirty per cent of its children in kindergartens, and four million children are being deprived of this early training in right habits of thought and action which all are entitled to receive.

With its next convention The Religious Education Association will complete twenty years of service. The twentieth annual meeting will be held in Cleveland, April 11 to 14, 1923, and the program will center about the discussion of "The New Day in Religious Education." In preparation for the series of conferences at this annual meeting noted experts are preparing studies on the contributions of modern science to religious education and on possible steps of improvement. Every session will be devoted wholly to discussion, all papers being printed in advance.

The conference seeks to avoid generalities. It is planned for people who are not afraid to think. It will focus on definite problems. The makers have in mind, not only the significance of a new day in methods of religious education, of a time when we must leave behind the outworn, inadequate, makeshift devices of the past, but also the deeper significance of a new day in human affairs, a day which is making new demands on religion. Just as in 1903 the Religious Education Association set up new standards and rallied men to new purposes, so this convention has been planned with the forward look, and its program will be a challenge to religion to make ready the ways of a new world. All sessions of the conference will be open without conditions to any who care to attend.

Book Reviews

So many books are sent to this department of EDUCATION that it is impossible to review them all. Naturally we feel under obligation to give preference to the books of those publishing houses which more or less frequently use our advertising pages. Outside of the limitations thus set, we shall usually be able and glad to mention by title, authors, and publishers, such books as are sent to us for this purpose. More elaborate notices will necessarily be conditional upon our convenience and the character of the books themselves.

THE RADIO AMATEUR'S HANDBOOK. By Frederick Collins. Revised and enlarged edition. T. Y. Crowell Company. Price $1.50.

The author is the inventor of the wireless telephone, and an expert and enthusiast along the lines of this wonderful wizardry of transferred human thought by means so invisable as to seem almost superhuman and immaterial. The very latest and best information upon "Radio" activities and mechanism is contained in the volume. It will be a necessary "handbook" to the vast and steadily enlarging company of enthusiasts and amateurs in this science and art. Yet, by tomorrow, there will be later discoveries and improvements and volumes describing the same. Who can keep up the "pace" of the present age? Only those who avail themselves of such help as is afforded by such books.

VEGETABLE GROWING PROJECTS. By Ralph L. Watts. The Macmillan Company.

This handbook applies the principles set forth in "Vocational Agricultural Education," the first book of the "Project Series." It is a book which will be practically valuable to the grower, and interesting and helpful in the classroom.

ON THE DES MOINES. By James Cloyd Bowman. The Cornhill Publishing Company. Price $1.50.

A charming little volume of poems in the modern form of versification, which is so different from the more formal measured and rhymed lines previously approved as the proper form for poetical expression. Overcoming one's habits and prejudices and looking sharply for gems of thought and harmonies of sound in these verses, one can find them a-plenty. It is a good book to put into one's pocket for a moment or an hour of relaxation,—after which one will work the better and the more easily.

THE MAKERS OF AMERICA.—By James A. Woodburn and Thomas F. Moran. Longmans, Green and Company.

Arranged in a most attractive manner, and largely along biographical lines, this book will be most useful in the service of history teachers in the public schools. It is especially adapted to the fourth and fifth grades. It is fully illustrated and astonishingly low in price, only 96 cents.

ELEMENTARY GEOGRAPHY. By Frank M. McMurray and A. E. Parkins. The Macmillan Company.

A child who studies geography through the medium of this volume and does not love the study of geography is an anomaly and a freak. To live with these living chapters, in the schoolroom or in the home, is to become a citizen of the world. So vivid is the style, so vital the subject matter, so alluring are the problems presented for the child to work out for himself that the pupil forgets that he is at school and studying one of the great branches of human knowledge; he feels, rather, that he is on a journey with things new and absorbingly interesting upon every hand; things which he has longed to know about and which he now sees for himself with his own eyes and understands the where, when and why of them without needing to ask questions. The book is a model of the work of the expert textbook maker and publisher. It is fully illustrated and covers all countries,—the land and the sea. There are fine, colored maps throughout, and tables at the close of the volume giving area, population, the twenty-five largest cities, elevation of plateaus and mountain peaks, largest rivers, lakes, etc., and a full index and pronouncing vocabulary.

CLERICAL PRACTICE. FIRST LESSONS IN BUSINESS. By William L. Anderson and Arthur W. Ross and Z. Carleton Staples. American Book Company.

The book above named is intended to aid the large number of pupils who leave school at the end of the elementary grades, or who start upon a High School course and drop out by the end of the first year, to take up work in stores, etc. For school use, or for private use after leaving school for a time or permanently to go into clerical positions, this book will meet a need that is common. Its condensed counsel is excellent, its specific exercises and problem examples are informing and stimulating.

A HANDBOOK OF ETHICAL THEORY. By George Stuart Fullerton. Henry Holt and Company.

In a series of chapters each of which is simply written for the average reader, of intelligence and with interest in moral questions, the author reviews the content of morals, the science of ethics, the social will, the ethics of the individual and of the state, etc. His book may well find its place in the classrooms of universities and it would make profitable reading for any one who is thoughtfully interested in philosophical and ethical lines of study.

FRIENDS IN BOOKLAND. By Winifred Ayres Hope. The Macmillan Company.

This is a brief play for children to act out. It has a motive, namely,

to promote a love of good books and to guide the young in the choice of such as are really worth owning and reading. It is recommended for grammar and private school use. It can be used by large groups of young people, each having a part in the play.

VENTILATION. Report of the New York State Commission on Ventilation. E. P. Dutton & Co.

This study of the problem of ventilation, extended from the fall of 1913 to the spring of 1917, is a most elaborate and thorough investigation of the subject. Part one of the report, after giving a survey of historical developments in regard to the physiological aspects of ventilation, describes in detail many extensive and interesting experiments and investigations conducted by the Commission, largely at the specially equipped laboratory constructed for the purpose at the College of the City of New York.

Part two, after giving the historical development of the art of ventilation, gives in detail the plan, methods and results of the extensive field investigations made by the Commission, based upon an intensive study of the following types of school ventilating equipment: (1) Rooms ventilated entirely through the use of windows; (2) Rooms ventilated through the use of windows, supplemented by the use of a single air duct or vent in the room; (3) Rooms ventilated by means of fans pumping air into the rooms, supplemented by a simple air duct in the room, through which air might find its own way out; (4) Rooms ventilated by means of fans pumping air into the rooms, with the air of the rooms being mechanically exhausted through special ducts, also by means of fans; (5) The above Method 4 modified, so that the said air was supplied to the room over and over again, after being re-conditioned before it was recirculated. This study also includes an extended investigation of the problem of artificial humidification of the schoolroom and an experimental study of the circulation of the air, with air inlets and exhaust outlets located in various positions and combinations.

Recommendations are given in detail for the application of the different types of ventilation equipment found practical for schoolrooms; the conclusion of the Commission's report is well worth quoting:

"In final summary we may conclude that either window ventilation or plenum fan ventilation—if the plant be properly designed and operated—yields generally satisfactory results from the standpoint of the air conditions in the average schoolroom. We have found it possible to maintain by either of these procedures air conditions in the schoolroom that would be considered satisfactory by all the ordinary physical tests and conditions which are reasonably comfortable and satisfactory to the occupants. The main difference lies in the fact that the air of the

fan-ventilated room is likely to be about 2 deg. F. higher and more uniform in temperature, and that the air movement in this method is considerably greater. We find that, on the whole, other things being equal, the window-ventilated room at 67 deg. F. is somewhat more comfortable than the fan-ventilated room at 69 deg. F. It appears that 68 deg. F. is a critical temperature as regards both comfort and susceptibility to respiratory disease; and the great advantage of window ventilation lies in the fact that the reduced air-flow in the zone of occupancy permits this low temperature to be maintained."

BOBBY COON, DETECTIVE. By Crawford N. Bourgholster. Illustrations by George Carlson. T. Y. Crowell Company. Price 75 cents.

A charming story of the woods and fields, sure to interest a boy or girl as soon as the age is reached at which they begin to take walks into the woods and fields. The animals are conceived of as sharing the characteristics and duties of men. Thus "Bobby Coon" becomes a detective in the service of "Judge Owl," and reports to the latter many of the doings of the little folk. This impersonation does not hinder the naturalness of the story,—any more than do the charming nature stories of Thornton Burgess. The appeal to the imagination of the reader is legitimate and helpful.

THE FIRELIGHT FAIRY BOOK. By Henry B. Beston. Illustrations by Maurice E. Day. The Atlantic Monthly Press, Inc., Boston.

The "foreword" of this dainty volume is a personal letter to the author by Theodore Roosevelt, written when he was Secretary of the Navy, in September, 1922. This foreword is in itself alone well worth the price of the volume to any reader, young or old. Theodore Roosevelt liked the book well enough to write the hearty foreword and also to use the book as a Christmas present for a number of people, including a United States Senator. Why should not the Twentieth Century weave fairy tales? Their value is conceded by every red-blooded man, woman and child of every nation. We need such a diet for our spiritual, mental and physical health. We are too matter-of-fact. Get this book for yourselves, dear parents and teachers! It will make a wonderful difference in your thought and action in relation to your children. It may prevent their becoming so conservative and "prosy" as you have been.

TRINI, THE LITTLE STRAWBERRY GIRL. By Johanna Spyri. Illustrations in color by George Carlson. Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

A charming little volume for a gift book to a child. The stories in this book will cultivate in the young reader a feeling for others, and will reveal the fact that sentiments of love for one's country and kin are a common possession of the peoples of all countries. The reader

of this book will gain new impressions of the way we should all look upon the foreigners who have come to America to make their homes.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES. Its Sources and Its Application. By Thomas James Norton. Little, Brown and Company.

The Constitution of the United States is a document of supreme importance to all the people, and every intelligent citizen should be familiar with it and able also to understand it in at least its main outlines. The publishers have done a service to the schools and colleges and especially to the large number of new voters who have been added to the body of our responsible citizenship by the enfranchisement of women. Every woman who wants to vote intelligently should have the knowledge which is made available in the pages of this book. It should find a place in the curriculum of schools and colleges. It is well arranged for both casual consultation and systematic study.

THE OUTLINE OF SCIENCE. A Plain Story Simply Told. Edited by J. Arthur Thomson, Regius Professor of Natural History in the University of Aberdeen. Over 800 illustrations, about 40 of which are in color. Four volumes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Price $4.50 per volume, cloth. Specially bound in half morocco, the set, $38.00; three-quarters crushed levant, $58.00.

It would be difficult to speak too enthusiastically about these splendid volumes, from whatsoever standpoint. The man of science will find his own particular branch faithfully presented; he will find, also, all other branches adequately treated. The student will get a reliable summary of any scientific field or department of human knowledge, of the world and that which dwells therein and thereon. Everything is made so plain that he who runs may read. At the same time there is not a superficial page or chapter between the covers of either of the volumes. The chapters are written by thoroughly qualified experts, and they have taken pains to use the language of common people; and the pictures help to visualize the facts in all their wondrous beauty, complexity and relativity. The educational value of such a set of books in a home where there are young people can hardly be overestimated. One can open at any page and become immersed at once in an entrancing revelation of the wonders and beauties of the created world. Always, as one reads and learns, one marvels at the greatness of man's mind, which has, generation by generation, century by century, learned to interpret Nature's purpose and method, as expressed by creation and evolution,—in the earth and in the heavens. No library is complete if these volumes are not to be found upon its shelves. We congratulate the publishers on the way they have co-operated with the editor in bringing out this monumental work.

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EDUCATION

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Social Objectives of Education in a Democracy

HENRY HARAP, NEW YORK CITY.

INTRODUCTION

THE demands of a better social order are not met by the original, native tendencies of the human being nor by his prevailing environment. The process of socialization has been taken for granted in the normal growth of man. What are the results? Harmonious social life is frustrated at every hand. Instinctive reaction sets itself in the way, institutions arising from anti-social instincts interfere, group interests dominate situations, native differences cause friction, traditional behavior warps the motives, and a variety of shades of these forces hinder right social conduct. The need for carefully building up a thoroughly socialized individual is clear. The school activities must be carefully examined in the light of social criteria. It is the purpose of this paper to analyze the social elements of life and to restate them as educational objectives.

I. THE UNITY OF SOCIETY.

The school occupations should cultivate the understanding of the essential unity of society as to individuals, occupations, and resources. That man is a social animal is a truism. He is more

than a social animal. He is a partner in the enterprises of mankind. He is a force in the life of every other man. Man is directly or indirectly the instrument of the joy and comfort, wisdom and power of his fellow men.

When we consider the social life of our own time, we are overwhelmed by the duties which confront us. We face a world heedless of its social responsibilities. "The persistent problems of social economy are poverty, disease, and crime, for which the conventional remedies have been respectively relief, medicine and jails. The social economist discovers by experience that relief is no cure for the first, nor medicine for the second, nor jails for the third. . . . The social economist holds that the prevention of poverty, disease, and crime is the first, elementary, and fundamental obligation of a public shool system. His demand for a revision of the curriculum in the light of this primary obligation is radical and insistent."*

This challenge to educators cannot be escaped. Add to this, housing conditions, commercialized vice and recreation, corrupt political practices, unemployment, industrial accidents, monotonous labor, child labor, exploitation of labor, and the problem of a reconstructed social view becomes very serious for the educator.

1. *A worthy education should cultivate the desire to share in the task of elevating all of society to higher standards of life.* The leader of men, the parent, the employer, the executive, the merchant, occupy positions particularly important in this respect. What is it that makes a man considerate of his fellow men, nay, a friend of men? If it is a spirit of consecration, school activity must be designed to produce it. If it is a mental habit, school activity must be designed to develop it.

He has been poorly educated who has it in his power to build model homes but chooses to enlarge his income by building poorer houses. He lacks in social training who has it in his power to raise the salaries of poorly paid laborers, but chooses instead to

* Edward T. Devine: Education and Social Economy. N. E. A. Journal of Proceedings and Addresses. 1913.

enlarge his art collection. He lacks in sympathy who sells habit forming drugs to unwary youths. He is deficient in social sense who cheats his fellow tradesmen. These are moral considerations which have their foundation in the social point of view.

Accelerated by a strong emotional drive the social point of view accomplishes great results. The socialmindedness which the war evoked is overwhelming testimony of the possibilities of a socialized national spirit. A review of the purely public enterprises which were freely supported by most of the people will indicate the extent to which the social motive carried the country during the war. The patriotic spirit brought on by the war for the time welded conflicting groups together for common purposes. Capital and labor combined to increase the quantity and to improve the quality of production. Religious groups combined to make the soldier comfortable and happy. Private owners yielded their property to the government. Private talent volunteered for government service. The problem of employment was transferred from individual to governmental control. War industries were conducted for national ends. Agriculture was aided and encouraged. Employees were kept happy and comfortable. Thousands of women left their homes to serve the public cause in one form or another. Conservation and thrift were freely accepted as a social duty. Public recreation for military and civil communities beame more extensive. Women were admitted into fields from which they had been traditionally excluded. Thousands of men voluntarily left their homes to serve their country. Distribution of food was conducted by governmental agencies according to public needs. The government undertook the construction of dwellings. Government insurance was established for the soldiers. Profits were limited by government regulation. Large incomes and luxuries were taxed liberally. Interest in health and education was stimulated to a high degree. Public service was a widely desired and widely approved end.

It is true that hitherto only war has evoked so wide a social response. Is it true that only a war can evoke the sentiment which carries the social motive along? It should, at any rate,

be the ambition of every rational person to accomplish the same human good in time of peace as is accomplished in time of war. When the world war ended the thoughtful men and women of our country waited anxiously for the continuation of public service to post war times. They were sadly disappointed. The social attitude which was manifested during the war was not the product of an education. It did not abide. It had not the permanent quality which is developed only in the course of life training.

Abstractly considered, the service point of view held during the war was partly rational, partly instinctive, and partly social. There were the serious thinkers who weighed their private comfort against the comfort of the soldier or against the need of the hour. There were those who were drawn into service by the impulses of love, sympathy, sex, desire for approval, desire for excitement, etc. And there were those who acquired the spirit of service by contagion, by imitation, by public opinion, by publicity. Such was the process of creating a social point of view in a crisis. From it the educator must make his deductions for a normal educational process in normal times.

2. *The school activities should increase the harmony of the human relations.* To be able to get along with people is to be an effective agent of wisdom and happiness. The individual interests hold in check the stream of pleasantness and congeniality. Shallow predjudices and petty whims frequently strain the relations between the individuals. The quarrels which cause so much unhappiness are born of the free operation of the elemental impulses. From childhood there should be developed the habit of mind which perceives the value of good will and the futility of ill will. The pugnacious tendency manifests itself very early in childhood. The anti-social tendencies are strong. The native capacity to inhibit the anti-social impulses is very weak. Training for harmonious association with men cannot begin too early. It is amazing that men are so ignorant of the fundamental laws of human behavior. Why does the individual continue to meet anger with anger, hatred with hatred? Can we permit the

development of individuals without regard for such capacities as will advance the harmony of human relations? There is a great need for such effective knowledge of human nature which is the basis of peaceful living.

Many are content to accept charity as the test of the social conscience. It is true that as long as the world makes charity necessary we shall require charitable gifts as an expression of social sympathy. But the more important form of social sympathy which the educational activities should develop is the constructive form. The right social attitude is one which actively regards the human being as growing toward perfection. A society which takes every precaution to reduce imperfection, will by the same token reduce the need for preventing deficiencies. The capitalist who amasses a fortune by exploiting women and supports an asylum on his income has not developed the right social point of view, nor has the philanthropist who opposes child labor laws. A school activity should develop the attitude of social responsibility of producing more highly developed men and women.

II. Supreme Worth of Personality.

The school activities should cultivate the view of the supreme worth of the human personality. The human being is an end and never merely a means. The institutions of life have no higher function than the highest development of character. It is not difficult to find numerous examples of the violation of personality. The weak, the blind, the aged, the ignorant and the backward are very often regarded impersonally. They are not significant factors in determining action. They are subordinated in the scheme of social life.

In political life constituencies are manipulated for private advancement. The right of free expression is bought and sold like so much material. In economic life thousands of human beings are reduced to industrial slavery without regard for their human attributes. The rational personality is deprived of its creative power. The accumulation of weatlh for the individual

is achieved by employing men as machines. Those who blindly exploit others, unwittingly reduce themselves to inhuman instruments of profit-making. Ignoring the human factor in the toilers they also make machines of themselves.

1. *The curriculum must prepare the industrial worker to overcome the obstacle to creative personality which machine labor sets up.* "In general, the present structure of the machine process seems to repress those instincts that look to creative self assertion on the part of the worker and to encourage those that lend themselves to standardization and the submission to authority . . . its effect at present is sternly to discount his personal worth, and his intellectual and moral capacities, by cutting him off from opportunities for creative self-expression and the demonstration of his social worth."*

The machine is the most enduring factor in modern civilization. Human nature may change, social institutions may change, but the machine has come to stay. Our problem then is to develop such attitudes and abilities, largely intellectual, which evoke creative expression of the worker who is subordinated to his mechanical labor. It has been suggested that the power to think, to engage in mental activity, during mechanical occupation will call out the creative faculty which is vital to personality. Training for a fuller and higher use of leisure for machine tenders is another suggestion. Then, there are those who propose that the suppression of the personality due to the rythmic movements of machine work can be compensated by participation in the control and management of industry. Whatever the solutions may be they have their correlatives in the school activities and these should be carefully planned.

A higher order of human association must accept as a fundamental postulate the supreme importance of the full expression of the higher human qualities. The habit of mind which causes men to use their brethren as instruments is anti-social. It crushes freedom. It retards individual growth and social progress.

2. *That habit of mind should be cultivated which views every*

* J. M. Mecklin: introduction to Social Ethics·

human being, no matter how backward, as possessed of potential power to develop. There is enough in common among the individuals of the human race to inspire respect for the lowliest. There is nothing in the character of those who are exploited which is not the same in the character of the exploiter. The fabric of the human personality is composed of the universal attributes of man. The dignity of rank, wealth, and social position obscures the universal kinship of personality.

The personality carries with it the inalienable right of free choice of action with due regard for a well ordered society. If man is his own master he must have the power to determine for himself that mode of good living which his free conscience dictates. Slavery is abhorent to man but the conscious suppression of the native powers of men is bondage of the basest kind. Institutions because of their impersonal nature often ignore the free personal self-direction of the higher human qualities.

III. Social Equality.

The school activities should develop social equality. There is no inborn tendency to react to men with unequal respect or consideration. Allowed the free opportunity to appreciate real worth the child will come to respect the man of strength, of skill, of character, of learning, etc. These natural evaluations are inevitable. To accord a man special privilege, artificial honors, and titles because of these accomplishments is unjust and anti-social. To conventionalize the inequalities of men, that is, to re-enforce the natural distinctions by social sanction, is to set up obstructions to the process of effective social life. To perpetuate the form, the privilege, or the title after the original accomplishment to which it is attached has disappeared is to cause social friction to an even greater degree.

Education is a great social force. It provides the common achievements which make it possible for men to meet on common ground. It is the meeting point of all men. It develops equality in those fundamental capacities which when undeveloped are the causes of inequalities. "Our educational institutions have per-

haps been our most potent force in maintaining and extending a certain tradition and spirit of social democracy in their assertion of the open door policy in regard to higher education. But they need now to examine themselves very closely as to whether theoretically and practically their education is not after all aristocratic rather than democratic; as to whether they are educating a few of the people rather than all of the people; as to whether they really want the same opportunities for all the people that are now being given to the few. The real test of the democracy of our educational system is its attitude to whatever economic changes may be found necessary to maintain the open door policy in education, now that the limitation of financial opportunity through the prior claim of the first comers and their descendants upon our national resources is continually pushing shut the door of educational opportunity."*

The school activities should not be devoted to the perpetuation of inequalities. The perpetuation of inequalities is the prime function of the famous English "public schools." This was the aim of the German school system. This was the aim of the Napoleonic school system. The result is to produce ruling and ruled classes.

It is true that the acceptance of the principle of equality has its correlative principles in the economic scheme. A conscientious student of education cannot permit himself to accept the present economic order. As a student of education it is not his function to lay down principles of a new order but he can direct the educational process along such lines as point to social progress. He can help to create potential members of a higher order. He can help to cultivate a point of view which makes it possible for men to compete equally in the great tests of life.

Social equality does not mean a levelling of capacities. It does not presuppose the absence of groups which result from individual differences. It expects a maximum amount of free association among groups, and the free movement of the individual from group to group according to ability. In the present school program

* Harry F. Ward: The New Social Order.

much attention is given to men of rank, per se. Kings, statesmen, generals, lords, merchants, etc. are studied in schools in relation to their position rather than for their real worth. The characters who enter into the experience of the growing child should be *men* first and *officials* second.

In spite of the increasing contributions of women to society, there is still a considerable amount of inequality in the treatment of women. In public life there are those who expect women to carry out details while men make the plans. In the family, the husband still often holds a despotic position. In political life women are slowly being admitted on terms of equality. In the professional schools there is no great haste to admit women. In determining salaries women still do not command rewards on an equal basis with men. The growing generation should be trained to regard women as the social equals of men.

IV. The Common Good.

School activities of themselves directly or indirectly should advance the common good. The experiences of the pupil are designed to minister to a social end. The activity itself, however, may be anti-social in which case it defeats the very purpose for which it is intended. To promote health is a worthy aim but to do so by awarding badges for good health may create social antagonisms. Athletic competition as a form of health education is pursued without examining its effect upon the social attitudes which are developed.

The World War furnished numerous examples of anti-social conduct in the pursuit of a social end. There were those who took advantage of the crisis to enrich themselves while ostensibly engaged in the service of their country. In public life men permit themselves to commit base wrongs in the execution of worthy public functions. Organizations created to better social conditions abuse the workers within their own group. Charitable institutions debase their own aims by unjust practices. Men commit the grossest injustices in the name of friendship. Fathers and mothers sometimes are cruel in the pursuit of their parental func-

tions. Labor unions officials prostrate their offices in the name of betterment. Newspapers which purport to tell the truth defile their pages with shameful falsehoods. So the curriculum often becomes an anti-social instrument for the achievement of a social aim.

The makers of school curricula must guard against the dangers that lurk in occupations which appear to develop right conduct but which on thorough examination are themselves examples of unworthy conduct. Not only the aim but also the activity which achieves the aim must be genuine. An activity may innocently favor one individual or group. It may unwittingly cultivate the egotistic habits. It may cultivate the elemental impulses. It may blindly develop prejudices. The larger aims of right living should be prominent in every element of the educational process as well as in the educational end. The character of the individual is the sum total of the acts and thoughts which have entered into his experience.

V. Relation Between Groups.

The school activities should promote the friendliest relations among the properly established groups. The present status of group conduct demands the most earnest consideration of educators. Group morality remains too often in its primitive stages. What moral precepts individuals have long ago agreed upon, groups are still slow to apply. Psychologists have only scratched the surface of group behavior, so complex is its nature. Professor McDougall writes, "The most serious task of modern statesmanship is, perhaps, to discount and to control these outbursts of collective pugnacity. At the present time custom is only just beginning to exert some control over this international pugnacity, and we are still very far from the time when international law, following in the wake of custom, will render the pugnacity of nations as needless as that of the individuals of highly civilized states, and physical combats between them as relatively infrequent."*

* William McDougall: Social Psychology.

Much of that which is vicious in the individual is founded in his group thinking and action. The group limits the free association of individuals by setting up numerous barriers of convention and ritual. Extrinsic and artificial differences peculiar to the group organism provoke unwarranted disagreement among individuals of unlike groups. The uncontrolled sectarian influence in modern life exists because the educational process has never dared to interfere with it.

The group conscience reveals social defects of serious concern. The ethics of business permits practices which private life condems. The law of business is the law of advantage, let him take who can. Business holds private property to be more sacred than human life. Value of goods and services of men are based exclusively on money standards. Business looks upon the nation as the guarantor of its rights irrespective of its social effect.

Wrongs are committed behind the shield of group loyalty. Lynchings are sanctioned by racial and national groups. The attitude of "my country right or wrong" is a blind loyalty which retards national progress. Hatred, predjudice, and abuse are allowable if directed against a member of an opposing party. Falsehood and corruption are winked at when employed in the defense of a fellow member of a group. Cheating in election is not immoral if done in the interest of one's party.

The waste and futility of group struggles are a great drain upon society. If the time, energy, and resources spent in group antagonisms were directed toward their common good social progress would advance by rapid stages. Under group pressure the emotions are intensified and the moral judgment weakened. The individual in a group becomes a more powerful agent of his impulses. The emotional leader is gloriously put in the van and the careful thinker is blindly relegated to the rear. It is the task of education to identify the group conscience with the broader social conscience. No pratice should be sanctioned by the group which does not have a social sanction. The group should not militate against the moral principles of the social order. The group has no higher function than to use its power to advance

the great ends of society. The practices of one group should not be antagonistic to the practices of another group. Harmony of groups is as essential as harmony among individuals.

VI. Responsibility to Contribute to Social Group.

The school activities should cultivate the responsibility to contribute to the social group. Civilized society requires that every man shall have a share in meeting the needs of the individuals which compose it. Economic activity is justified only on the ground that it produces the goods which society needs. The individual must perform his social obligations if he is to have a right to his share of the benefits of society. Life, particularly economic life, is "a social interchange of services." The function of our economic system is to feed, to clothe, and to furnish mankind.

This view has little vogue in the field of practical business. The present economic system "implies that the foundation of society is found, not in functions, but in rights; that rights are not deducible from the discharge of functions, so that the acquisition of wealth and the enjoyment of property are contingent upon the performance of services, but that the individual enters the world equipped with rights to the free disposal of his property and the pursuit of his economic self interest, and that these rights are anterior to, and independent of, any service which he may render."*

The property influence touches every phase of life and warps the conduct and ideals of men. "We make a fetish of the public school with its cheap information and shopkeeping accomplishments, but we have not yet conceived of human life as a moral and esthetic revelation of the universe, or of education as a practical process of entering into this tremendous possession. Even the bounty of Nature, the indisputable heritage of the collective nation, her fields and forests, oil-wells and coal mines, mineral deposits and stone quarries, water power and roadways,—all this is handed over to the crude ministration of profit, and the

* R. H. Tawney: The Acquisitive Society.

majority of America's children are reduced to the position of wage takers and servants, with little time or strength or heart for the carrying out the true social purpose, the pursuit of the higher human wealth. The bulk of our laws have to do with merchandise and real estate. The few that concern themselves with man are mainly prohibitive, the things that he may not do . . . In the matter of the professions, even, the application of this human yardstick brings much into question. One finds many cases of sweet, disinterested service, but one also finds the hungry profit-taker with scant hold on the vision of perfection, and a keen appetite for pottage. The ostensible purpose of the professional life is to render social service, and this requires that the service itself be true, and the server himself sound."*

Economic production should be devoted to the manufacture of goods which increase the health and well being of society. At this very hour three and a half million children in the center of Europe are starving while our warehouses are stocked with food to last eighteen motnhs. (June 1921) Production is governed by conditions of the market, by supply and demand, by capacity to sell, by price considerations and by money standards. For the poor, inferior grade, inferior quality, and inferior workmanship are deliberately designed. The purpose of the producer is to sell his goods not to render services. If he can sell by producing goods which are cheap but wasteful he will do so. For the rich the goods are specially shaped and designed and packed to command increased returns, regardless of genuine value. Commodities are produced in terms of price without consideration of utility. "It is deplorable, indeed, that many human beings should consent to degrade themselves by producing the articles which a considerable number of workmen turn out to-day, boots which are partly brown paper, and furniture which is not fit to use."**

The social parasite is he who extracts more than he reasonably requires to live effectively and to perform his social functions. For those who perform no social function, provided

* C. H. Henderson: Education and the Larger Eife.
** Tawney: Acquisitive Society.

they can do so, there is no earthly justification. For those who command large advantages of life without making commensurate contributions there is very little justification. Controlling the means of economic activity is social production only to the extent that actual personal service is rendered in the process. There is no place in a productive society for executives in name who are not executives in fact. It is the responsibility of the educational process to inculcate this duty in the conscience of the individual.

There is no defense for such economic activity as is negative in its effect upon society. A social point of view which emphasizes productivtiy cannot tolerate commercialized gambling and vice, the production of instruments of destruction, the establishment of amusements which satisfy the baser instincts, the manipulation of the market, the vicious control of output, speculation to increase profits, sabotage, soldiering on the job, etc.

Those who view the economic activity of our country ideally tell us that America's interest in business is the result of the endeavor to develop the resources of a virgin country. "America is a big country, and the subjection of this vast continent within the short space of a hundred years has accustomed the American to think in terms of quantity—the tallest building, the biggest city, the longest railroad—these things strike the imagination because they measure achievement."*

If it is true that the dominant motive "is not money but the making of money, the enterprise, the game, the adventure of big business, that enlist his enthusiasm," then there is indeed an opportunity for education to direct this spirit of enterprise along truly social lines. Mindful of the sacredness of personality and bent upon social progress this tremendous surge of creative enthusiasm will carry our nation far along toward a better day.

VII. Power to Evaluate Institutions.

The school activities should develop the power to evaluate customs and institutions in terms of their true worth and in terms of their service to society. Customs and institutions arise

* Carl Becker : The United Statef, an Experiment in Democracy.

from the common tendencies of the individuals of society. The positive tendencies give rise to worthy institutions. The negative tendencies give rise to unworthy institutions.

The unworthy institutions are large-scale systems for the indulgence of the lower instincts. War is the nationalization of the instinct of pugnacity. "What makes war difficult to suppress is that it springs from an impulse rather than from a calculation of the advantages to be derived from war."*

The economic system is dominated largely by the acquisitive impulse. Aristocracy and its accompanying institutions originate in the mastering impulse. Slavery is the product of the submissive impulse. Prostitution is born of the sex impulse, as are some aspects of the theater, music, dancing, the novel, and the magazine.

The habit of regarding institutions critically is important to a progressive society because of the inherent qualities of an institution. The institution converts knowledge into dogma and conduct into fashion. It establishes itself as an end and obstinately refuses to justify itself socially. The institution is impersonal and irresponsible. An institution is created to meet a specialized need but does not always pass out of existence when the need disappears. The institution mechanicizes conduct and this has the effect of dwarfing the personality. An institution lacks the suppleness and spontaneity which makes life genuine.

"Neither custom nor law are, as such, moral, immoral, or unmoral." The origin and the application of customs and laws are the particulars which give them ethical value. There is no more reason for the blind acceptance of customs than there is for the blind acceptance of individual opinion. The social sanction not the validity of a custom is the force which compels its acceptance. It is therefore a problem of inculcating the same wholesome criticism of social sanctions as is commonly adopted toward individual sanction. The American educational system is charged with producing a nation of "uncritical drifters." At a time when investigation and discussion are most needed, we accept fixed

*Betrand Russell: Principles of Reconstruction.

forms of conduct and thought and enforce their universal approval. We hinder those most who are most conscientiously devoted to human progress. We ostracise those who would help us find the way out of the existing complexity.

"If we respected the rights of children, we should educate them so as to give them the knowledge and the mental habits required for forming independent opinions; but education as a political institution endeavors to form habits and to circumscribe knowledge in such a way as to make one set of opinions inevitable."*

Present education suffers from two great defects which hinder independent and disinterested consideration of existing social institutions. First, it is almost completely taken up with the acquisition of existing systems of knowledge. The learning of organized and dogmatized facts is the major occupation of students. Evaluations and free reactions are secondary to this acquisition of formalized information. Practical observation, judgment, and skill are secondary to the study of subject matter. Second, present education follows in the wake of accepted opinion instead of helping to create opinion. The school reflects the established institutions of the present but does not point the way to the future. Indeed, education seems constantly to be catching up with the times instead of being the forerunner.

The economy and stability of a changing order are apparent to those who have acquired historical perspective. A proper social sense encompasses not only the distant person but also the distant day. The historically-minded person regards society as a developing process in which every generation shares. He does not expect that perfection will be reached in his own day for the enjoyment of his own generation. He is not impelled by an immediate end which is to bring peace and happiness to the world during the period of his own life. The kind of peace and happiness which the social man seeks comes from the participation in the process of development toward the higher order.

The social disturbances of our own time are the result of the

*Bertrand Russell: Principle of Reconstruction.

accumulated errors of the past. Every period has it in its power to perpetuate the old injustices or to build for a better day. As the past generation is the heritage of our day, so our day is the heritage of the next generation. The violent upheavals of our time are the results of the opportunistic economy of the past. Every age is a struggle between the social forces of progress and those which hold tenaciously to the accumulated possessions of the day. The result is conflict, violence, and waste.

Institutions like men become superannuated, but men have a limited existence and institutions have not. Institutions offer a powerful natural resistance to extermination. Accordingly no institution should be created without its accompanying machinery for effective change. The makers of institutions, and this includes the great body of men, should have the habit of mind which regards institutions and change as inseparable as democracy and the elective system.

Our nation faces the educational task of transforming a population of uncritical followers into a population of intelligent and independent thinkers. A state whose citizens are untrained to form sound opinions independently will ever rest uneasy in fear of free speech and free press, the very instruments of its conception. The power to understand and to express the true worth of things and men and institutions is the greatest gift of a democracy.

Mental Yardsticks in Question

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ARE we a nation of fourteen-year-old boys and girls trying to operate the most complex and dangerous machinery that the social mechanicians of the ages have invented? Is it really a matter of "heads or tails" whether we are going to steer this machine to a triumphant journey's end or smash it to smithereens in the ditch? Is the world's most hopeful slogan, "Democracy," always to be pronounced with a rising inflection and punctuated with an interrogation point?

At any rate the many articles that have lately appeared in leading periodicals, attempting to analyze the problems of democracy in the light of the apparent revelations of the army intelligence tests, have administered a needed jolt to the complacency of the cocksure optimist. We have had at least a timely reminder that democracy is, after all, only an experiment being tried in the cosmic laboratory. In the great test-tubes powerful reagents are at work on mysterious compounds. Gas jets are glowing under crucibles, blowpipes are roaring, there is much simmering and sizzling, and the smoke and fumes are stifling.

But there is as yet no word from the Consulting Chemist upstairs, and nobody knows yet whether a new aqua regia has been discovered, or whether all the contents of tubes and beakers and retorts must be emptied into the sink and the whole experiment begun again, with new reagents, new processes, and new chemists.

After all, though, what else could any scientist wish? A poor chemistry it would be if one always knew in advance just what would be the result of the experiment. And in the end, no ex-

periment is a failure. If it doesn't get the result expected, it may get a better one; at the worst, the record the chemist keeps will save the next experimenter from one particular failure anyhow.

For all that, it is well that we have a few doubts and misgivings, provided they do not weaken into mere gloomy forebodings. The right kind of misgivings will set us to asking questions and then to searching for answers.

The questions raised by the recent studies of army tests seem to have sifted themselves into two main groups. Those of the first group relate to the significance and validity of the "intelligence" tests themselves, upon which the more or less unhopeful conclusions of sundry writers are based. The questions of the second group assume at least the partial validity of the tests and are concerned with the soundness of the conclusions drawn therefrom.

I.

First, then, let us raise frankly the serious question whether the intelligence tests, so-called, are really, as one writer confidently claims, tests of "*capacity* to see things in relation, *ability* to grasp situations as a whole, and *power* to reason" (*italics mine*), or whether they are not, in a greater degree than their originators realize, tests of *state of development* of innate capacity, ability, and power.

Admittedly, the army tests are far more nearly "intelligence" tests than are any of the "general information" tests so much affected of late by popular magazines and unpopular pedagogs. We may well believe them to be the nearest approach yet made to actual yardsticks for measuring mental capacity, innate ability and power.

For all that, there are several points in which these tests are clearly measurements not of what the subject came into the world with, innate capacity, but of what progress he has made toward the realization of that capacity—not, to be sure, through the conventional educative processes of the school, but through

the reaction to the stimuli of environment as these are met with in the exigencies of every-day living.

It is significant that the tests, even those of the Beta (or pictorial) group, involve at the outset a fairly well developed power to interpret *symbols* in terms of *things,* to visualize as in three dimensions a situation represented to the eye in one or two dimensions. Is it not apparent that this power is greatly increased or developed by training and practice and that the constant use of pictorial representations in connection with the reading of books gives the literate a very considerable advantage over the illiterate? Then the tests in the very beginning operate to the disadvantage of the unschooled subject, and in so far as they do so are not "intelligence" tests but education tests.

If this were not true the youngest child should be able to make as good a showing as the adult. As compared with the Alpha test, to which the ability to read is prerequisite, this pictorial test is obviously much simpler; but as a test of innate capacity *per se*, it would seem to be but little more dependable.

In fact, is it not inconsistent and meaningless to express the grades, or ratings, of those subjected to such tests in terms of *mental age*? That term is suggestive enough if we are measuring state of development, but really means nothing if we are measuring innate capacity, which is as great at birth as at any subsequent period of life. It is not *mental age* we are trying to measure with our yardstick, but *mental size*, which is fixed at birth by the laws of heredity.

Incidentally, too, it has more than once been pointed out that both reading and picture tests are discriminatory, being in favor of those accustomed to interpret symbols and against those whose life activities and reactions have dealt wholly or chiefly with *things.* Is there not as wide a gulf to span, as far as the feat of comprehension involved is concerned, in going from the feeding of a machine or the repairing of an engine to the study of a page covered with small pictures setting forth a situation to be grasped, as there is in passing from the pictured page to a *printed* page?

If it be argued that the only feasible basis for measuring

innate capacity is the testing of its performance as near the head of the stream as possible, and that these tests, by minimizing the value of educational advancement as a factor, are the best means yet discovered, it is still questionable whether anything like sufficient allowance has been made for the educative factor of everyday life and experience.

Besides, it seems to be assumed that the subject at the time of the test is exhibiting his *full* capacity. If that assumption were warranted, it could be maintained that the factor of capacity (x), plus the factor of development-through-experience (y), equals the net result (z). Then by grouping the persons tested in such a way as to equalize (approximately) the y factor, the variable x could be determined with reasonable exactitude ($x = z - y$).

This may be good algebra, but that it is bad psychology is evident from two considerations. First, we have no way of determining the value of y, since education-through-experience is in itself almost infinitely variable—far more so than education-through-school, which is now highly standardized. In other words, the amount and value of school-education at a given point (say the fourth grade) is much more easily computed than the amount and value of experience-education at a given age (say ten years). The "grades" in the school of life are not standardized, at least in our books!

Furthermore, there is no way of being sure that the full value of x is present in the equation. It is everywhere recognized that existent but latent capacity is often buried so deeply under the rough clods of an unfavorable environment that it is dwarfed and stunted in infancy and adolescense, so that no later educative process can ever develop the power that was born and *might have been* developed. Society, rather than Nature, is responsible for many "runt" minds.

It is apparent, too, that since the cantonments doubtless received thousands of boys who had not only been deprived of educational advantages, but whose lives had been ground under the wheels of a deadening industrialism, there must have been many "stunted" minds among those measured. The poor show-

ing made by these subjects under the intelligence tests would necessarily indicate something *less* than innate capacity. Algebraically expressed, our equation would be $x > z - y$.

Still another limitation of the intelligence tests as a mental yardstick is worth noting. This is the notable absence of any factor of *interest* in the situations presented by the printed or pictured page, and a consequent lack of effort to grasp the situations. Judging from the testimony of many ex-service men, the tests were regarded by the average recruit as only one more of the "fool things" that might be done to the hapless doughboy in "this man's army." There is abundant testimony that the tests were often unsympathetically administered and listlessly taken.

Is it not easily conceivable that one who could readily enough "size up" a fairly complex situation presented in a broken machine, a baseball game, or a threatened panic in a theater, might view with lackadaisical unconcern a somewhat analogus situation symbolically presented to him? That this disturbing factor of unconcern and consequent lack of effort would likely operate to a greater extent in the case of average and inferior minds than in the case of superior and book-using minds would hardly need to be argued. This factor apparently tends not only to invalidate the test as a whole, but to accentuate the disadvantage under which the illiterate subject is already placed in the test.

In fact, the interest factor is deserving of considerable emphasis. Latent capacity is often brought to light only through some unusual stimulus, such as anger, love, religious experiences, and the like. Life has ways of testing minds and souls more effective than any the psychological technician has yet devised.

Thus far our questions have sought to find out whether the army intelligence tests are really "mental yardsticks," tests of capacity as distinguished from attainment. It seems clear that the x factor of innate capacity has not been differentiated from the y factor of development sufficiently to enable us to determine the true value of x in the equation.

It is not even suggested that this limitation impaired their value for the purposes for which they were primarily intended.

The need in the army was to determine not the potential, but the actual and immediately available mentality of the recruits in order to insure the most effective disposition of the heterogeneous mass for the task in hand. That the tests served this purpose well can be abundantly supported by expert testimony and official records. It does not follow that they are equally serviceable as a basis of judging the strength or weakness of the foundations of democracy.

The extreme doubtfulness of their value in measuring natural capacity is a matter of primary importance, for on the validity of such measurements society must depend largely in determining the method of defense to be adopted. If it can be shown that the average of mental capacity is as low as the army tests are interpreted to indicate, then the problem of democracy is first of all one for the biologist rather than for the educator. In the face of a situation as appalling as would appear, the school is confessedly helpless, not to say hopeless. The only hope for the future lies in *improving the breed*, by adopting a policy of artificial selection such as has so remarkably improved the animal and plant types for greater serviceability to man. In this task the indirect help of education will be very great, but its direct contribution will be negligible. The undertaking will be a matter not of decades but of centuries, for biological heredity cannot be "speeded up" by educational campaigns or legislative enactments. And in the meantime Democracy must hold its breath!

If, on the other hand, the chief trouble is not with the size and quality of brains that keep coming into the world, but with what influences and stimuli are made to act upon these brains after they arrive, then the problem is primarily one for the educator, the legislator, and the social reformer; and while the biologist will doubtless be called upon for valuable help, there is nevertheless great hope that we and our children, to say nothing of our children's children, may live to see real progress made toward the Ideal Democracy.

If our criticism of the applicability of the army tests to this most serious inquiry is valid, we may be justified in our conclu-

sion that the educator is still the most vital factor in the solution of the problem of democracy. At least we seem to be in no danger of exhausting the possibilities of education upon the brains we now have to work on. Occasionally we may find a "D" or "E" mind that has gone to school until its little pint cup is full and spilling over, but the great mass can stand a good deal more than they have ever had.

II.

For our second line of inquiry we may accept the army tests as indicative of intelligence in the broadest sense of the term. It is relatively unimportant whether we now mean innate capacity or the present ability of the subject to "grasp situations as a whole", and the like.

Stated briefly, our main inquiry now is, Does the low average intelligence, or "mental age," of our adult population prove that democracy is really in question? Is the measure of mental capaity also an adequate measure of social value or social fitness?

Perhaps we ought to break this question up into two or three more specific inquiries. To begin with, would not a test of emotional and volitional reactions be of greater value in determining the usefulness of a man in the social order? Supposing that we could really measure the feelings of approval, indignation, gratitude, and the like, aroused by presenting typical and realistic situations, would not such a test disclose more of the subject's social fitness than does his ability to think and reason alone? And since volitional responses, or conduct, are so vitally tied up with feelings and impulses, are they not of the higher importance in any investigation of the solidity of our social structure?

While it is of course desirable and important that every citizen in a democracy shall be intelligent, capable of self-direction, and able to contribute directly to the solution of the problems of society, still we must not forget that there are vast ranges of useful achievement open to those whose reasoning processes, in our Anglo-Saxon sense, are neglible. Reasoning is, after all, in the technical meaning of the term, an acquired habit of thought of an adult race. The world was old before Aristotle and Bacon were born, and had seen the rise and fall of advanced civilizations,

arts, sciences, religions, and cultures. Bards, psalmists, poets, prophets, and sages lived and flourished and lifted their fellow men to higher levels of thought and life centuries before the first syllogism was ever formulated. It is even conceivable that Hammurabi, Isaiah, Sappho, or Paul might have scored a "D" or "E" on the Binet yardstick!

Again, is it not apparent that the poor showing made by so large a body of our citizens is rather a lesson and a warning than an occasion for alarm? It must be that the lethargy of the "inferior" minds is in large part the result of centuries of stupefying inactivity under European autocracies and aristocracies. Surely democracy is the only way out. A true democracy should be and will be the mighty awakener of dormant mind and soul.

It is of course disappointing that the second generation of eastern and southern Europeans, born on American soil, seem to have shown only very slight improvement over the newcomers. When we take into account, however, the conditions under which vast numbers of these Neo-Americans have had to make their debut into democracy, it should not surprise us that the transplantation into the new environment has not been more stimulating. The tyranny of czardoms has doubtless stunted the mentality of many a virile and capable peasantry, but the more heartless tyranny of "the Iron Man" will never rouse the dormant mind of their descendants, even under the flag of political freedom.

Last of all, it is a legitimate inquiry whether there may not be great elements of strength and performance in the deep-lying strata of submerged mentality in America and elsewhere. May it not well be that the so-called "inferior" minds constituting so large a mass of our society are the heavy clay sub-soil into which the lush vegetation of our higher intellectualism and culture must keep sending down its roots, drawing thence the earthy silicates needful to stiffen and strengthen the stems that are to support the increasing burden of foliage, flower, and fruit, lest these break and fall under their own oppressive weight?

Nature shows a manifest abhorrence for the procreation of the lowest types of mentality, by mimimizing the physical attractiveness of idiots and imbeciles. In a large percentage of

cases complete or partial sterility is the salutary proof of this abhorrence. Is it not a fact of equal significance that no such abhorrence is shown in the case of the higher-grade morons, who constitute perhaps the bulk of the "D" and "E" minds? It is a matter of frequent comment that many morons are not only physically normal, but well-sexed and physically attractive.

Now while it is easily conceivable that society might do well to restrict the propagation of even moron types, as it ought certainly to prohibit the propagation of idiots and imbeciles, it is nevertheless an open question whether there is not still a place in the social order for a good sub-stratum of stolid, slow-moving minds.

The analogy of the subsoil used a moment ago must not be overworked, but it is worth considering whether an intellectual and spiritual subsoil, constituting an inert mass, responsive only to the insistent urge of the more active life of the higher plane, may not be an element of great safety and stability in the life of the race. Only as this inert mass is torn up and penetrated by large root-ideas vigorously pushed downward from above, can the real and permanent growth of democracy be assured.

Once this soil, however, is thoroughly permeated with ideas and convictions, these become almost ineradicable. The changing winds of popular enthusiasm or indignation, of fad and fancy in matters social, political, religious, may sway the yielding blades and leaves and stems, but the clinging roots hold fast until the storm is over.

This sub-stratum of society cannot furnish leadership, but it does constitute the field in which leadership is developed. The slow educability of the bottom layers of society is only a challenge to the sense of responsibility on the part of the higher ranks. It is only as those more favored by heredity and environment come to recognize the solidarity of the race and the true meaning of human brotherhood, that democracy can vindicate its claims. The human family must raise itself *horizontally* if it is ever to get far out of the primordial slime-pits. Any other program of progress is the mere selfish advancement of the elect, the creation of an aristocracy of brains, and the deeper submergence of the proletariat.

The tragic abortion of self-government in Russia is a sobering lesson to all democracies, but the lesson must not be misread. It seems to prove that popular ignorance is a rotten foundation for the structure of free institutions. It seems to prove that there is at least a century of work the schoolmaster must do in that dark land before it can be made safe from the demagog and the tyrant. It does not prove that there is any lack of *capacity* for self-government in the Slavic race. And it does not make out a hopeless case for Russia even in our own lifetime.

In conclusion it is pretty certain that we have not yet a perfect yardstick for measuring the dimensions of minds and souls. It is nevertheless encouraging that so much patient study and experimentation are being directed toward the perfecting of such a standard of measurement. Much real progress has been made, enough at least to reveal the wide range of possibilities for continued research.

It becomes increasingly clear that all the avails of heredity and education must be summoned to the task of human betterment. Eugenics ought to be elevated to its true status as a master science. Commanding as it does the deepest interest of many able scientists, it is deserving of a better means of promulgation than the cheap flippancy and crude philistinism of the daily press.

Certainly also it is high time to put more drastic restrictions upon the number and character of immigrants from Europe. There can be no valid argument against keeping out the mentally inferior types, whose influx is adding needlessly to the difficulty of our present problem of assimilation. Most of all, America must face fairly and squarely the duty of making freedom mean as much in the industrial and economic sphere as it is assumed to mean in the political.

Meanwhile the immediate future of democracy is in the keeping of the "superior" minds. That future is safe if the "salt of the earth" have not lost its savor, and if the "light of the world" be not darkened.

A Project on Egypt

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A VERY interesting project grew out of our study of Egypt's contribution to the ancient and modern world, which led us rather far afield into the realm of geography, history, literature, art, language, manual training and music, and gave us an opportunity of presenting a dramatization for several hundred people.

The following bibliography was used:

Ancient Times; A History of the World—Breasted.
Africa—Black.
Africa—Herbertson.
The Wide World.
Things Seen in Egypt.
The Continents and Their People—Chamberlain.
Geographical Spice.
Distant Countries—Winslow.
Old, Old Tales from an Old, Old Book.
Egypt—Hichens.
Modern Sons of the Pharoahs—Larder.
Story of the Chosen People.
llustrated Bible Stories.
History of the World: Early Egypt—Ragozin.
The Question as a Factor in Teaching—J. W. & A. C. K. Hall.
The Dramatization of Bible Stories—Elizabeth Miller.

* See also (Education for March, 1922) a remarkable Project-Pageant on "England, Past and Present," which was contributed by Miss Brett, and which we have reprinted in a separate pamphlet at 25 cents, its publication in Education having caused a demand which quickly exhausted the edition for March.—The Publishers.

Since geographical controls influence us to so large an extent, one cannot study the history of any people without knowing their geographical environment. Hence we were led into the study of the fertile Nile valley, and appreciated why the old Greek writer called Egypt the "gift of the Nile." We learned of its climate and the richness of its soil, of its varied products and bountiful harvests.

The abundance of water coming all at once, forced the ancient Egyptian to build dams and reservoirs and to irrigate his land. The fact that his boundary lines might be washed away every year necessitated his learning surveying and geometry.

We studied about the wonderful progress made during the 30th century B. C., a progress equalled only, in control of mechanical power, by that of the present century.

Through pictures and comparative sizes we tried to visualize the mighty structures that they raised. The great pyramids, the sphynx, the temples, and the mighty hall of Karnak, gave inspiration for our manual training and art work.

We collected pictures of Egypt, and were amazed to see how often these were used in advertisements in newspapers and magazines, in fact, there was a wealth of material from which to draw. Any deep impression must result in some form of outward expression, so we modeled the Nile valley on the sand table, and made clay models of the pyramids, the sphynx and temples. The making of posters necessitated our further study of the land from an art standpoint.

The Cleveland Museum of Art gave us some splendid help with their interesting Egyptian collection, and we visited there many times, both as a class and individually. The Western Reserve Historical Building contains a real mummy, so we were glad to visit there and get some information concerning that.

Some of the pupils carved wooden floats to represent scenes from Egypt, some copied their heiroglyphics, some made books containing the pictures we had collected, supplemented by drawings of things they had seen.

In our music period, the opera "Aida" was studied. The children told the plot of the story by acts, and listened to victrola records from each act. They told the history of the writing of the opera and learned that it was presented at the foot of the pyramids in 1912. The children have become quite familiar with "Celeste Aida" and the "Grand March from Aida," can whistle the airs and always recognize them. In fact, they report whenever they have heard them at the theaters.

The study furnished abundant material for oral and written composition. The following acrostic was composed by the class, though several members chose to write individual ones.

"**E** is for Egypt, a very ancient land,
G is for Gizeh, where the great pyramids stand,
Y is for Yearning to keep the body's form,
P is for Pyramids that resist both time and storm,
T is for Tombs, that in the cliffs were made,
And also for temples, where those ancient people prayed."

A study of the grain situation naturally led us to a study of the story of Joseph and his brethren in literature, and that story we decided to dramatize. The children already knew much of the story, but the version given in Elizabeth Miller's book, "The Dramatization of Bible Stories," was found to be very helpful. The story is also extremely well told in question form in the book entitled "The Question as a Factor in Teaching," by J. W. and A. C. K. Hall. These two books, also "The Story of the Chosen People" and "Illustrated Bible Stories," formed the basis of our discussion, and then the children wrote the play reproduced here.

The children chose the parts they wished to impersonate and were then tested by the class; were scored on the basis of

(a) fitness for the part;
(b) ability to express the thought;
(c) clear enunciation;
(d) quality of voice.

The final assignment of parts was made by vote of the class.

Each child took some part in the play, and they made their own costumes and decorations, which necessitated much study of pictures of the Egyptians and ancient Hebrews. The slave girls wore many beads and the queen wore a real Egyptian metallic shawl, a beautiful thing loaned us by one of the parents. The girls were dressed in cheesecloth and the boys in paper cambric, using the colors white, corn-yellow, brown, terracotta, purple, green and blue. The shepherds wore a short tunic, colored turban, and went bare-legged. Each carried a staff or shepherd's crook, which they made. The color scheme was quite beautiful, and the earnestness and spirit of reverence of the young actors was most impressive.

The Story of Joseph

Dramatized by the 6-B Pupils of Observation School.

A Play in Three Acts.

ACT I. THE DREAMER OF DREAMS.

PLACE—Dothan.

TIME—About 1729 B. C.

ACT II. THE INTERPRETER OF DREAMS.

PLACE—A Scene in Pharaoh's Court—Egypt.

TIME—About nine years later.

CHARACTERS—Joseph (the dreamer), Reuben (the eldest brother), Simeon, Gad, Levi, Naphthali, Judah, Dan, Assher, Zebulun, Issacher, Pharaoh, Queen, Butler, Wise Men, Jacob (father of Joseph), Steward, Slaves, Attendants, Soldiers, Ishmaelites.

ACT I.

(*The ten brothers sitting or lounging on the ground.*)

REUBEN: Shall we stay longer in this place? Our flocks have fed well in Shechem and Dothan. Let us return to our father

Jacob, who dwelleth in the vale of Hebron. He may be anxious lest harm befall us and our flocks.

JUDAH: Why should we go home? Our father loveth us not.

DAN: It is Joseph, our younger brother, whom he loveth best.

LEVI: Yea! That dreamer of dreams!

ZEBULUN: I was glad when our father said unto us, "Take the flocks to feed in Shechem," for then we would be rid of this Joseph.

SIMEON: Heard ye not when Joseph said, "Hear, I pray you, this dream which I have dreamed; for behold, we were binding sheaves in a field, and lo, my sheaf arose and stood upright, and behold, your sheaves came round and bowed down to my sheaf."

GAD: Shall he indeed reign over us?

NAPHTHALI: Shall he indeed have dominion over us?

JUDAH: Lo, he dreamed yet another dream and said, "Behold the sun and moon and eleven stars bowed down to me."

SIMEON: Shall our father and mother and we, ourselves, indeed bow down to him?

LEVI: Sawest thout not that our father was pleased with Joseph though he rebuked him?

(JOSEPH *appears in the distance.*)

ASSHER: Behold this dreamer cometh!

ISSACHER: It is he, our father's favorite, who approacheth us.

GAD: Yea, it is he, with his coat of many colors, which our father gaveth to him.

LEVI: Cannot our father trust the flocks to our care without sending this younger brother to spy upon us?

DAN: What shall we do?

JUDAH: Our time has come. Let us slay him!

SEVERAL: Nay! Nay! We dare not!

REUBEN: Nay! Thou dost not mean to slay him! Let not our hand be upon him, for he is our brother and our flesh!

JUDAH: We must slay him and be rid of him, and then we shall see what will become of his dreams.

ZEBULUN: Then we shall see if he shall have dominion over us.

SIMEON: Let us not kill him but cast him into yonder pit, and say unto our father that an evil beast hath devoured him.

REUBEN: Not kill him. Throw him into yonder nearby pit.

(REUBEN *goes away.* JOSEPH *appears.*)

GAD (*putting his hand roughly on Joseph's shoulder*): Why comest thou here?

JOSEPH: Our father, Jacob, said unto me, "Go ye unto Shechem, and see if it be well with thy brethren and the flocks." When I came to Shechem I found ye not, and in doubt what to do, I asked a certain man and he said, "They are departed hence, for I heard him say, 'Let us go to Dothan.'" So I came and found ye here. What troubleth thee? Have aught befallen thee or the flocks?

SIMEON: Hear his tale! So he thinks he will reign over us! This dreamer of dreams! Strip him of his coat of many colors! Throw him into yonder pit! This favored son!

JOSEPH: What have I done to deserve this?

(*They bind him and throw him into the pit. The brothers sit down.*)

GAD: Behold, I see a caravan approaching.

ZEBULUN: From what country?

DAN: It is a caravan of Ishmaelites, bearing balm, spices and myrrh, going down into Egypt.

JUDAH: What profit is it if we slay our brother and conceal his blood? Come, let us sell him to the Ishmaelites, and let not our hand be upon him.

SEVERAL: So be it.

SIMEON: Gad, go you and bargain with these merchants.

(ISHMAELITES *approach.*)

(SIMEON *brings* JOSEPH *from the pit.* GAD *salutes the leader of the caravan.*)

GAD: What wilt thou give us for this lad? We would sell him.

(*Leader examines* JOSEPH *and consults with his men.*)

LEADER: We will give thee twenty pieces of silver for him.

GAD: What dost thou think of this bargain? Twenty pieces of silver.

ALL: Sell him! Sell him!

(JOSEPH *is sold. The brothers start to divide the money.*)

SIMEON: Joseph is gone with the Ishmaelites, but what shall we say unto our father?

ZEBULUN: Yea, what shall we say?

JUDAH: Hast thou forgotten our plan? Let us kill a goat and dip his coat of many colors in the blood. Then we shall say unto our father that an evil beast hath devoured him. Then will our father, Jacob, mourn for this favorite son!

ALL: As thou sayest, so let us do!

(*Brothers leave, still dividing the money.*)

(REUBEN *returns and goes to the pit, and fails to find* JOSEPH.)

REUBEN: The child is not, and I, whither shall I go?

(*Curtain.*)

ACT II.

(PHARAOH *on throne, Court in attendance. Enter servant.*)

SERVANT: The wise men have come, O mighty Pharaoh.

PHARAOH: Bring them before us.

(WISE MEN *enter and bow down to* PHARAOH.)

PHARAOH: Arise, O ye, who call yourselves wise men.

1ST WISE MAN: What dost thou desire with us, O Mighty One?

PHARAOH: I have dreamed a dream and there is none that can interpret it.

2ND WISE MAN: What is thy dream, O Pharaoh?

PHARAOH: Behold, there came up out of the river seven kine, well-favored and fat, and behold, seven other kine came up after them out of the river, ill-favored and lean-fleshed, and the lean-fleshed kine did eat up the seven well-favored kine. And I dreamed yet another dream, and seven ears of corn came up upon one stalk, fat and good, and seven other ears, blasted and thin,

sprung up after them, and the thin ears swallowed up the fat ears and they grew no fatter.

(WISE MEN *discuss together.*)

3RD WISE MAN: O, Mighty Pharaoh, we cannot interpret your dream.

4TH WISE MAN: O, Mighty One, thy dream is beyond our wisdom to interpret.

1ST WISE MAN: Be lenient with us, O gracious Ruler, for our wisdom has failed us.

2ND WISE MAN: Grant, O Pharaoh, that thy servants may have more time to consider thy dreams.

PHARAOH (*angrily*): Go ye from our court, ye vain boasters, lest our anger pass beyond our control.

BUTLER: "I do remember my faults this day." When it did please Pharaoh to cast the chief baker and me into prison, we did each dream, and a young Hebrew, who was a slave in Potiphar's household, and who was unjustly imprisoned by Potiphar's wife, did interpret our dreams, and it came to pass as he said within three days. I think, O King, he may be able to interpret your dream.

PHARAOH (*to Queen*): What sayest thou, O gracious Queen?

QUEEN: Call the young Hebrew in.

(JOSEPH *is brought in by Butler. Salutes* PHARAOH.)

PHARAOH: Arise, ye young Hebrew.

JOSEPH: What wouldst thou have with me?

PHARAOH: "I have dreamed a dream and there is none that can interpret it. I have heard it said of thee that thou canst understand a dream to interpret it."

JOSEPH: "It is not in me. God shall give Pharaoh an answer of peace."

PHARAOH: Behold there came up out of the river seven kine, well-favored and fat-fleshed, and behold, seven other kine came up after them out of the river, ill-favored and lean-fleshed, and the lean-fleshed kine did eat up the fat-fleshed kine and did grow no fatter than before. And I dreamed yet another dream, and

seven ears of corn came up upon one stalk, fat and good, and seven other ears, blasted and thin, sprung up after them, and the thin ears did swallow up the full ears and waxed no fatter than before.

JOSEPH: The two dreams are one. The seven fat kine and the seven fat ears are the same—seven years of plenty. And the seven lean-fleshed and ill-favored kine and the seven blasted ears are the same—seven years of famine. The years of famine shall devour the years of plenty, and it shall be grievous.

(*Great consternation in the court.*)

PHARAOH: What can I do to meet this great catastrophe?

JOSEPH: Let Pharaoh seek out a man who will build great storehouses of food throughout all the land of Egypt, that the land may not perish.

PHARAOH (*to attendants*): Where can we find such a man?

QUEEN: If this young man is wise enough to interpret your dream, might he not be wise enough to accomplish this great task?

PHARAOH: The Queen has spoken wisely.

(*To* JOSEPH)

Since thou hast done this great deed, which none of the wise men could do, I will give thee power over all the land of Egypt. Only in the throne will I be greater than thou.

(PHARAOH *gives* JOSEPH *his ring.*)

JOSEPH: It hath pleased Pharaoh to give me much power, and with the help of God Egypt shall be saved.

(*The court rises.*)

PHARAOH: "I am Pharaoh, and without thee shall no man lift up his hand or foot in all the land of Egypt."

(*Curtain.*)

Act III.

Scene 1.

(*Servant enters and greets* Joseph.)

Joseph: Arise.

Servant: Eleven Hebrews who say they are from the land of Canaan, have come to buy food.

Joseph: Bring them before me.

(Brothers *enter and bow to* Joseph.)

Joseph: Why come ye here? And from what country have ye come?

Reuben: We are come yet a second time from the land of Canaan to seek food. Hast thou forgotten at our first coming ye called us spies, and we said unto thee that we were the sons of one father who dwelleth in the vale of Hebron?

Joseph: I do remember ye well. "Is your father still living, the old man of whom ye spake?" Is he well? Brought ye your younger brother with you?

Levi: Our father is still living and he is well. We have brought our younger brother with us, as you commanded us.

Joseph: God be gracious unto thee, my son." (*Turning to steward*) Fill the men's sacks with grain, as much as they can carry.

Brothers: Our father's blessing shall be upon thee.

(*Steward and brothers leave;* Joseph *calls another servant.*)

Joseph: Put each man's money in his sack again, and put my silver cup in the youngest brother's sack.

(*To another servant*)

Hasten after those Hebrews and say: "Why have ye wronged my master so, and stolen his silver cup, when he treated you so kindly?"

Joseph: These brothers have changed much in the years that have passed, but I must test them still more ere I tell them who I am.

(*After a time brothers and steward return.*)

JOSEPH: What wicked thing is this that you have done? Did you not know that I would surely find out your wicked deeds?

SIMEON: "O, my lord, what can we say? God has punished us for our sins. Now we must all be slaves, both we who are older, and the youngest in whose sack the cup was found."

JOSEPH: No, only one of you is guilty, the one who has taken away the cup. He shall be my slave, and the rest shall go home to your father.

JUDAH: I will take the blame for my younger brother. I promised my father to bring him home safely, and if aught befalls him it will kill our father, for he said, "If I am bereaved of my children, I am bereaved!"

GAD: Let me bear the blame, for it will surely kill our father, since he has already lost Joseph, his favored son.

JOSEPH: Come near unto me. I am Joseph, whom you sold into Egypt. God has sent me before you, to save not only your lives, but those in all the land of Egypt. Now, go back to the land of Canaan and bring our father and all his family, that your lives may be spared.

SCENE 2.

(*Enter* JACOB *and the brothers.*)

JACOB: "Now let me die, because I have seen thy face and know thou art yet alive."

JOSEPH (*to Pharaoh*): My father and my brethren have come from the land of Canaan, as thou hast commanded.

PHARAOH: What is their occupation?

LEVI: We are shepherds, both we and our fathers. The famine is sore in the land of Canaan and we had not food for our flocks and ourselves. Be gracious unto us, O Pharaoh, and let us sojourn in the land of Egypt.

PHARAOH: Dwell ye in the land of Goshen. In the best of the land shalt thou dwell, thee and thy family and thy flocks.

ALL: Praise be unto God, Who has done this good thing.

(*Curtain.*)

The Use of Pictures as Illustrative Material in Modern Language Teaching

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WHEN I was asked recently to speak about the use of slides in modern language teaching I answered that I should prefer to speak about the use of pictures and slides. There are several reasons why I put pictures in the first place, and slides in the second place in our teaching. First of all, pictures can be used at any moment in our daily work; they do not need any machinery, nor do they need a dark room. It always takes a few minutes to get the lantern ready and to get the room sufficiently darkened, and as we have no time to spare in our recitation periods, it seems to me better economy to keep the slides for an occasional illustrated talk for the whole department or for the French, German or Spanish Club. According to my idea pictures are an integral part of the class room work and it is necessary that the pupils should have access to them for the preparation of their daily lesson, and very often we wish to compare one picture with another and we have to have them side by side. Both things are quite impossible with slides. Of course slides are a most valuable and interesting possession for any modern language department, but if we can have only one thing, either slides or pictures, it seems to me better to concentrate one's efforts and one's money on getting together a good collection of pictures in the first place and leave the acquisition of slides for later on, when we own all the pictures we need.

Let us first consider what pictures are most necessary for the work in modern languages in our high schools.

There are two large groups of subjects which are absolutely

unknown to our American children. The first group is the peasant, the peasant houses, the peasant costumes and whatever is connected with the peasant's life. The other group is the mediaeval cities with their narrow winding streets, their city walls and city gates, with their market places and their quaint old houses. It is easy enough to translate the word paysan, by the English equivalent peasant, but as our children do not know what a peasant is the conception does not grow any clearer by translation, and here a few well chosen pictures will serve the purpose better than any long explanation. In the same way pictures will help to give the children an idea of what a mediaeval city looks like. They perhaps have an idea what a fortified castle, a Burg or a chateau is, but the city gate, the market place, the night watchman can only become a reality to them after they have seen and understood the pictures of those things. Of course these pictures have to be used in the right way. Many teachers will say, we have no time to spare in our recitation, and it is quite impossible to bring in any more extra things, especially with all the reading the colleges demand for entrance. But the use of pictures, if they are used in the right way, is like oral work, and rapid reading, and no translation into English, a help and not a hindrance in our class work. The main point is, that the pictures must be an integral part of the recitation—they cannot be a thing apart and by itself—they must be closely connected with the reading material and the day's lesson. Let me give some examples. We are reading a short story, the scene of which is laid in a mediaeval city. The story may take place nowadays, but most European cities have kept some or all of their mediaeval characteristics. You cannot escape stories of that kind in either French, German or Spanish. This is the moment to have on the wall or on the bulletin board pictures of an old city. If you cannot get the pictures of the exact city which is mentioned another city will do just as well. Take pictures of Carcasonne, or Avignon or Tour in France, of Toledo in Spain, of Rotenburg or Nürnberg in Germany. Very likely somewhere in the story is a description of the streets or of the general

aspect of the town. Make the pupils use those words and describe one of the pictures. After you have finished the whole story a very nice home lesson is to have the students collect the vocabulary and the phrases referring to the old city and describe one or two pictures. Each student can take a different picture and write an interesting composition about it. Perhaps there are some figures in the picture—and pupils might invent a dialogue for them—or characters of the story might have a dialogue that refers to the pictures. Sometimes you can have a set of pictures of one city and one pupil can impersonate the personal conductor and take his friends through the foreign city.

Let us consider for a moment what kind of pictures are suitable for class use. First of all they must be large enough so that the class can see the details distinctly and the pictures need not be handed around. In general I find colored pictures better than black and white ones; there are many subjects, like peasant costumes, where the color scheme is very important.

Not only photographs should be used to acquaint the students with foreign cities and landscapes, but reproductions of paintings by well known artists should also be shown, thus giving the students the first glimpse of the art of the country they are studying. Such pictures give the mood of the landscape and the quaint poetic charm of old cities much better than photographs; they give the students a true and artistic impression of the foreign country and are absolutely necessary as a supplement to photographs. For instance, after having studied the architectural details of Rouen from photographic reproductions, Pissaro's impressionistic painting of the Gros horloge a Rouen or his Vue, prise á Rouen will be most interesting. Pissaro's paintings of Paris should not be left out, his Pont d'Argenteuil, Boulevard Mont-Martre, Place du Thēâtre Français, etc. The quaint charm of an old German town is strongly felt in Moritz von Schwind's Hochzeitstreise, or in Spitzweg's Briefträger and Am Dachfenster. Sorolla, the Spanish artist, has painted some wonderful impressions of Toledo, as Una Calle de Toledo, Casa del Greco in Toledo, and El Cántara in Toledo, . Zuloaga's

Sepûlveda and Old House of Haro, give us a better understanding of the soul of Spain than any photograph can ever do.

Postal cards are too small for use in large classes, but they are a great deal better than no pictures, and like all the pictures which are under discussion should be posted on the bulletin board, not too many at a time. The pupils should understand that it is part of their preparation to look at the pictures and they must be able to recognize them later on. Most of us have a beloved collection of foreign postal cards which we gathered abroad and which mean pleasant memories of our travelling and studying days, and we certainly want to use those if we have nothing else. Even if they are too small for a large beginners' class, they will be sutiable for use in the third and fourth year, where the class usually has dwindled very much in size.

Whatever we do, we must give the pupils the feeling that these pictures belong to the story. When we read a tale which deals with the peasants and their lives, we shall show them photographs and reproductions of paintings dealing with that subject. In French the paintings of Millet give perhaps the best picture of real peasant life. In studying Spanish peasant life, Sorolla's painting, Leonese peasants, or Zuloaga's Village Judge or his Vintagers returning in the evening, will help the students to understand the different types found among the inhabitants of the Spanish countryside. It is not difficult to find a great many illustrations for German peasant costumes and peasant houses. The reprints from the "Jugend" Schwarzwalddorf and Württembergischer Bauernhof, both painted by Georgi, and Reiser's Bauernhof in Werdenfelser Land are very satisfactory for our purposes. Among Teubner's Künstler-Steinzeichnungen, Volkert: Am Bergeshang, Prentzel: In Schwaben, and Stiefel: Beschaulichkeit are especially to be recommended. For studying peasant costumes many interesting pictures can be found in the Seemann collection, for instance Thoma: Hans Thomas Mutter und Schwester, Bantzer: Hessischer Bauerntanz, Hölzel: Hausandacht, Defregger: Tiroler Bursche and Feierabend. Among the Jugend-prints, Sailer: Dachauer Bäuerinnen, Zim-

mermann: Pfingstgang in Dachau, Grässel: Die Schwestern, are charming colored reproductions of well known paintings.

Some time in the course we read a historical tale or novel, and the pupils in the third and fourth year of the language course are supposed to receive some instruction in the history of the foreign country. There again pictures will be a great help in visualising and stimulating the class work. You read in French about Louis XIV. The paintings of Watteau like the Fête Champetre, the Fête Galante—Rendez-vous de chasse, and others are the most subtle expression of the spirit of Paris in the Rococo period. Boucher's Madame de Pompadour belongs to that time. For the later time David's Coronation of Napoleon I or his Death of Marat would be interesting for the pupils.

We can find a great many interesting pictures for Spanish history. For instance, the wonderful portraits of Velasquez of Prince Balthasar Carlos; Donna Margarita; Donna Maria Teresa of Austria—Pradilla's Surrender of Granada, Velasquez' Surrender of Breda—or Sorolla's portrait of the present King will surely interest the pupils if they are shown to them in connection with their reading.

Pictures are a great help in beginner's work too, especially for reviewing the vocabulary. In a number of schools the Hölzel pictures of the seasons are used in the beginning course, they are certainly no works of art, but they serve the purpose. It is quite possible to find reproductions of some beautiful paintings, which show about the same subjects and the pupils can describe the painting, using the words and expressions they have learned in connection with the Hölzel pictures.

There is an excellent set of French pictures* though not excellent from the artistic point of view, which are most serviceable for review of the 300 words which are necessary in the vocabulary of everyday life. There is no beginner's book in French, German or Spanish which does not contain material about everyday life. I rise in the morning, I dress, I eat breakfast, I

* Tableaux de lecons and de choses et de language. Librairie Armand Colin. Paris.

go to school, etc., etc., and if beautiful paintings cannot be found of all those subjects, these French pictures serve the purpose of using and reviewing the vocabulary very well.

Pictures are a great help for an entertainment in the French, German or Spanish Club, and for that particular purpose slides might be even more effective. One meeting might be devoted to showing pictures or slides of peasants and peasant houses, the teacher could give an informal talk about the subject in the foreign language, or it might be a description of a foreign city the teacher has visited, and a few personal touches might enliven the description and make it most interesting to the pupils. For a Christmas meeting of the German Club one might collect some of the best Christmas pictures—some of Dürer's, some of Richter's and end with Uhde's modern conception of the Christmas story.

The next question is how to get the pictures. The first thing a teacher usually says is, "Oh, we are very poor, we cannot spend any money on pictures." But getting together a collection of pictures for class use is not so much a question of money; it is much more a question of interest and of enthusiasm and temperament. Even if a teacher had a large sum of money to spend he could not buy a ready made collection of French, German or Spanish pictures. It would take him some time first to think out what his special needs are and then it would take him quite some time to find exactly what he wants. But collecting illustrative material for class use is one of the nicest amusements one can find. If you take a trip abroad in your vacation, the enjoyable way of spending a rainy day or having a rest from sightseeing is to go from one shop to another and see what you can get in the way of pictures, and where you can get it the least expensive. But we can do very well in this country if we are interested and if we keep our eyes open. When in New York or in any other big city we can go to the different book stores and pictures stores. Sometimes one can pick up a number of a foreign periodical which has very nice pictures. Or, go to the public library look over all the foreign periodicals, and you are sure to find

something useful which can be ordered from an importer. For instance, the most charming pictures of Spain and Spanish life can be found in the Spanish periodical, La Esfera, the contents of which are chiefly devoted to art. Each number costs una peseta, and the pictures can be bought single. They are large enough for class use, but they have to be mounted on strong paper or cardboard.

In Number 429 (Anno IX.), a very impressionistic picture of a Spanish town and castle can be found. It is a colored reproduction in red and yellow tones from an original, called "Feudalismo," of the Spanish painter Baldomero Gili Roig. It is large enough for class use and certainly gives a very good idea of the aspect of an old Spanish town. Another number, published this year, No. 428 (Anno IX.), brings a view of a narrow street in Segovia: it is a reproduction of a painting of Agnado Arnal. Number 391 brings a colored picture of a Spanish peasant, No. 399 of a Spanish country girl. No. 400 (Anno Viii.), has a picture, Noche Sevillana, also another picture of a Spanish girl, called "La del Pannelo Estampado." The periodical "La France" published in this country very often has charming cover pictures. For instance, the cover of the November number 1920 shows peasants in the Bretagne on their way home from church. In the same number you find a reproduction of an etching, showing an ancient alley with heavy-beamed overhanging houses in the historic town of Troyes, formerly the capital of Champagne. So much has been published during or after the war about France and the French that you find good pictures in a great many illustrated periodicals here in this country. For instance, the geographic magazine and others are full of useful pictures. However, a great many of the pictures we need have to be bought through importers from the foreign art publishers. We all want to get as much as possible for the little money we have and owing to the fact that the German mark, formerly 25 cents, is at a fraction of a cent now, we can buy photographs and very good reproductions of French, German and Spanish pictures for very little money. The colored reproductions of Seeman (Leipzig, price 40 cents) serve our purposes very well, and the German periodical Die Jugend has beautiful colored reproductions of the

works of French, German and Spanish artists, which can be bought separately at about 60 cents. They very recently issued a large illustrated catalogue containing several thousand reproductions from which pictures can easily be chosen: Katalog der farbigen Kunstblätter der Münchener Jugend (München 1919. Jugend Verlag).

I have already mentioned that not only photographs of landscapes and buildings but reproductions of paintings by good artists should be used, and there is a very good reason for that. One of the many things a school should do, is to awaken the artistic understanding in the children and certainly the teacher of modern languages has just as much a mission in that field as the teacher of art or of English, perhaps even more so, as the old countries in Europe have done so much more in the field of Art than America; and very probably the only things children ever learn in school about the art of France, Germany and Spain they learn from the teacher of modern languages.

For the pupils these pictures are just pictures, illustrating some definite phase of foreign life. For the teacher, however, they must mean a great deal more. Each artist and his creations must be known to him in connection with his surrounding and his period. Teachers of modern languages ought to have a general understanding of the main periods and phases of the development of the art in the foreign country. They ought to have a knowledge of the elements of architecture, as the buildings of past centuries in Europe cannot be understood without some previous study. Of course, universities, colleges and normal schools where teachers of modern languages are trained for their future profession should offer courses which deal, among other subjets, also with the art of the foreign country. But this is a new idea and begins slowly only to make way. The majority of teachers, unless they have attended a good summer school, have had little or no opportunity or stimulus for such study.

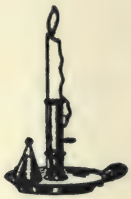
Now the best way to begin collecting French, German and Spanish pictures is to plan a short course of study of the art and architecture of the foreign country, and after the course is planned

out, to follow it. We all agree that a teacher ought to give one or two hours a week to some definite study which will improve his teaching directly or indirectly. There might be some colleagues or friends who would be interested in such a course of study and who would like to join a small class. In a larger city or near a college somebody might be found who could conduct such a course. But it can be done quite well by a teacher alone without such help if he has the necessary books to begin with. In order to understand the idea of development and historic evolution a general history of art is necessary. The collection of general histories of art, Art in France, Art in Germany, Art in Spain, published by Scribner here in English and in their respective countries in the language of the country, can be recommended highly for the purpose. These books deal with the whole field, architecture, painting, sculpture and the minor arts and contain small but valuable illustrations and a good bibliography.

Whatever is read ought to be read in the foreign language and this is the most important point for teachers of modern language. There are plenty of teachers still who know nothing of the foreign literature and who do not own a single foreign book except the little American school editions they use in class. A teacher of modern languages ought to own a small reference library of books in the foreign language about the foreign country, and if you have not started such a little library of your own, this is the moment to do so.

Instead of working one's way through a general history of art, it might even be better to begin with a monograph on one painter or one particular monument in art. Excellent short monographs with good illustrations are easily accessible in French and German. To mention a few collections: Les Grands Artistes (Paris, Librairie Renouard, Henry Laurens editeur), Künstler-Monographien, edited by Knackfuss (Velhagen and Klasing, Bielefeld and Leipzig). It is harder to find such books in Spanish, as the other nations seem to have appreciated Spanish art more and written a great deal more about it than the Spaniards themselves. However, the collection Los grandes

Pintores Espanoles Contemporaneos, Biblioteca del Arte Espanol (Sociedad Espanola de Libreria, Madrid) contains a few valuable monographs; also the essay of Juan de la Encina, El Arte del Ignacio Zuloaga can be recommended. Or one might begin with the study of an old city. In France one might choose Carcassone, Aiges-Mortes or Avignon; in Germany Rotenburg in Bavaria preserves the charm of the middle ages better than any other city; in Spain Toledo has kept its city walls, old houses and narrow winding streets. The French collection, Les villes d'art célèbres, and Petites Monographies de Grands édifices de la France, both published by Henri Laurens in Paris give good illustrations and descriptions. Rotenburg has a beautifully illustrated monograph by Tony Bögner (München, Piper). Among the charming little books of the collection El Arte en Espagna good pictures and good Spanish introductions can be found. For instance, La Catedral de Burgos, La Casa del Greco, Real palacio de Madrid, Sevilla, Alhambra, El Escorial. And a few books of this kind should find their way into the school library. If we can get only one or two children a year interested in art, we have done a good thing. But of course we all know that we can never awaken artistic and intellectual interests in our pupils unless we ourselves have the necessary knowledge and the enthusiasm, which is perhaps more necessary.



Adolescent Literature

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ONE of the most vital educational problems today, under much discussion by our earnest educators, is the problem of the adolescent boy and girl. A type of education to suit the career of youth of this age is one of great importance, and needs to be organized with much seriousness and care. It is well before discussing the subject of this paper that a few general statements be given concerning adolescent characteristics, so as to make clear the whys and wherefores of this so important subject.

Adolescence, a period preceding maturity and following childhood, generally speaking from the twelfth to the twenty-fifth years, is a period of rapid growth: physically, in the growth of the body and in its health and care for future sustenance; mentally, in the development of the intellectual powers; morally, in the formation and development of character; and socially, in the new interests the child finds in life and those with whom he comes in contact, be it in the home, at school, in the church, on the playground, or any other place. Before reaching this period of accelerated growth the child is simply an individual by himself; he is able to play and amuse himself without seeking the companionship of others; he has a narrow and blurred conception of life as a whole, and no ability to look into the future. Reaching adolescence, youth drifts from this individualistic state to the social, forming a world outside himself. Life signals its opportunities to youth, and he eagerly reaches out for them. Every new thing, new situation, and activity is welcomed; new ideas, new truths, new knowledge is sought after; he dreams of future attainments that he never realized as possible before. Spiritual devotion takes hold of these young, vigorous minds, and a grow-

ing enthusiasm for stirring events, heroes and heroines, and thrilling personalities that may impress lasting ideals. Adolesecnce is an age of plasticity, of many moods, of sexual interests, of intense emotions and impulses.

Literature plays a unique part in the life and education of an adolescent. It is one of the greatest opportunities of reaching the child and helping him form ideals from characteristics he already has in his nature. From every point of view, literature reacts upon life and fashions it, as much as life fashions literature. Literature presents accurate pictures of life, and an abundance of material is found from which we can select texts on which to base moral instruction and build admiration, hope, love, ambition, and so on. Men and women through literature express their ideas, their inner selves or souls. There is nothing that makes more strongly for culture than the contact with great personalities. Much of the subject-matter in narration, in drama, and lyrics, quite unlike geography and mathematics, stirs the emotions and seems to warrant an appeal to the feelings that otherwise would have remained dormant. It serves as entertainment for our leisure hours, and broadens our outlook on life. Literature, as is true with the art of music, can either demoralize or uplift us to a higher plane; can awaken the good or evil in our natures.

No matter which phase of literature we take, the good or bad, the adolescent is affected ultimately in one of two ways. A farmer planning for his year's crops is pretty careful to select the best seeds to plant, in order that his crops may be of healthy, superior quality. Is it not just as important that we propagate wholesome literature in the minds of our growing boys and girls for the purpose of forming a basis for wholesome thinking and desirable ideals in life? Up to a generation ago the number of books written expressly for children was limited, and a girl or boy who had a taste for reading was forced to gratify it by books written for older people. This brought them in contact with good standard works from earliest childhood, so by the time they reached

adolescence no pleasure was found in inferior literature. But today there is an unlimited number of books which in all cases are not of superior quality. A great many of them are of low standard, tending to debase, degrade and vulgarize ideals of youth, making vices more attractive than virtues. Many of the cheaper class of magazines and stories that abound in thrilling adventures, exciting moments, and sensational and emotional passages of dialogue, only aid to corrupt tastes and ideals and stimulate criminal actions in inexperienced youth. It is a perfectly natural tendency for youth to revel in this sort of reading, since it appeals to their adolescent natures.

On the other hand, the amount of good literature, both English, American and extraneous, is so vast that it never can be exhausted. Why then should not our youth have it? Literature in the form of story, prose, essay, description, and drama, is rich in qualities which youth like, and possesses something within it that promotes growth as well. The good derived from salubrious literature is so obvious that it leaves all arguments for its justification unnecessary.

The school and the home are the two institutions which come in close contact with children, and which afford excellent opportunities in directing youth toward forming clean habits in reading. It is a common error of some parents to regard this duty of supervising and suggesting proper reading matter as outside their paternal responsibility, believing it to be the purpose of the schools to educate their children, and if they fail to know what and how to read it is through no fault of theirs, but through the school shirking its responsibilities. Other parents, through indifference or ignorance, are unable to perform this duty; still others are poor judges themselves, lacking high standards. It is hardly possible that they can stimulate in youth anything but narrow and uncultivated tastes for reading.

A story I recently read in regard to the subject of reading will illustrate my point. A schoolgirl, in some paper sent up to her teacher, had spoken most enthusiastically of a certain lurid and

sensational story by a popular authoress, and her teacher recognizing the evils of that style of literature, wrote upon the margin of her paper, on returning it, "Not suitable"; to which the girl's father wrote in reply, "Why on earth not?"

Since such is the situation, it remains the high privilege of the teacher to perform this duty of creating a taste for wholesome reading in youth, and to lead them to the various sources where they can make discoveries of their own. In this way their powers of reflection will be exercised properly. The great danger in the use of general reading lies in its selection. Here again, before a teacher can successfully and intelligently select for her adolescent pupils kinds of literature best suited for them, she should have intimate knowledge of their physical, mental and social characteristics. Adolescents do not have to be coaxed to read. They are only too eager, as they thirst for the quick glow, touch, and sentiment of life so well delineated in good literature. Literature abounds in interesting personalities that will captivate and enthrall adolescents, and which is a means of molding character. No two individuals are alike in personality; therefore, no two can equally like the same kind of books. Sometimes lack of interest in general reading is because the chords of human appeal have not been touched. If we can discover some one thing or things a youth is really interested in, e. g., history, geography, nature, the sciences or arts, it is possible to give him books abounding in stories of this type, and so stimulate interest for further reading along these lines. To be able to do this a teacher should be a lover of books, and be eager to share with her pupils the good things which she has herself found in reading. Many children come from homes where good reading material is unknown; here is an enterprising teacher's chance to unfold to them the great treasure and heritage of good books. A desire for a school library can be aroused in the pupils, and the teacher can well co-operate with the librarian of the public library to get other books. I here recall an instance in my teaching experience. The individual was a lover of reading, and read beautifully in class; how-

ever, she came from a home where moral character did not exist. She had no father; her mother worked in one of the mills in town, and was not in a position to exert any good influence upon the child. One day, at recess time, I noticed her sitting on the yard settee, reading a book, and six or eight children hovering around her to get within hearing. Interested to know what was going on, I walked up, and with a casual glance took in the situation. Somehow or other the girl had come into possession of a novel of the "yellow type," and was so thrilled by it that she was passing along her thrills to her classmates. Knowing the moral danger of such reading to the girl and those with whom she associated, I thought over this incident during the day, and thought it possible to elicit her interest in the direction of books of more nurturing character. That night after school I had a long chat with her, and discovered the things in which she was interested. The following night I accompanied her to the town library, introduced her to the lady at the desk, procured a card for her, and helped her select a book to take home. Here was a case of redirecting a child's interest for reading into desirable channels. Within a week I had introduced the class to the library—almost every one wanted a card. Besides, every week the librarian sent up to the school fifteen or twenty new books which the children could select from and take home for a certain length of time. This was toward the end of the year. I was amazed at the interested attitude of the children toward the books, and I am sure that having found the source for wholesome reading material they drew from it constantly.

In the magazine and periodical world of literature the same may be said. We want the coming generation of children educated to read the best magazines. Along with the invention of the moving pictures and the rapid development and influence of the speaking stage in the last quarter century, new magazines have been put into circulation for the great mass of people. Many of them are of trashy character, and too many of our young people are reading just this kind of magazine for their pastime.

In my investigation for a full list of juvenile periodicals published in the United States, I was surprised to find something like sixty titles mentioned, both religious and secular. Such a list is found in the American Newspaper Annual and Directory, published annually by N. W. Ayer & Son, Philadelphia, Pa.

Among juvenile (secular) magazines a few are mentioned in the lists below; I give also a short book list of fiction, short stories, essays, autobiographies, poems and plays. To include all good books of value to adolescents is quite impossible, as new ones are being written and published every day; nevertheless, I have endeavored to compile a list which may help adolescent boys and girls to get started in forming the habit, and further encourage them to read worth-while literature in their leisure hours.

BOOKS

Fiction

	Author
The Little Minister	Barrie
A Window in Thrums	Barrie
Romola	Eliot
Silas Marner	Eliot
Eben Holden	Bacheller
The Jessamy Bride	Moore
The Light that Failed	Kipling
The Virginian	Wister
Les Miserables (abridged)	Hugo
The Blue Flower	Van Dyke
Treasure Island	Stevenson
Kidnapped	Stevenson
The Cloister and the Hearth	Reade
Being a Boy	Warner
Buried Alive	Bennett
David Harum	Westcott
Ivanhoe	Scott
Kenilworth	Scott
Story of a Bad Boy	Aldrich
Armorel of Lyonesse	Besant
Heidi (translation)	Allen
A Dog of Flanders	Ouida
Ramona	Jackson

	Author
Oliver Twist	Dickens
Our Mutual Friend	Dickens
The House of Seven Gables	Hawthorne
Adventures of Tom Sawyer	Mark Twain
Adventures of Huckleberry Finn	Mark Twain
The Prince and the Pauper	Mark Twain
Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come	Fox
The Trail of the Lonesome Pine	Fox
Freckles	Porter
The Girl of the Limberlost	Porter
Laddie	Porter
The Vicar of Wakefield	Goldsmith
The Minister's Charge	Howells
The Blazed Trail	White
An Egyptian Princess	Ebers
With Fire and Sword	Sienkiewicz
Merry Adventures of Robin Hood	Pyle

MAGAZINES

Juvenile (Secular)

	Address
Boy's Chum	Brazil, Indiana
Junior Republic Citizen	Litchfield, Conn.
Cook's Trio	Elgin, Ill.
Boy's World.	
Girl's Companion.	
Young People's Weekly.	
Youth's Companion	Boston, Mass.
Every Girl's Magazine (Camp Fire Girls)	New York, N. Y.
St. Nicholas	New York, N. Y.
Riker & King List (for Boys)	New York, N. Y.
Fame and Fortune Weekly.	
Liberty Boys of '76.	
Pluck and Luck.	
Secret Service.	
Wild West Weekly.	
Work and Win.	

Short Stories

	Author
The Happy Prince	Wilde
The Gold Bug	Poe
The Purloined Letter	Poe
The Fall of the House of Usher	Poe
The Great Stone Face	Hawthorne
The Town Pump	Hawthorne
A New England Nun	Wilkins
The Three Strangers	Hardy
The Revolt of Mother	Wilkins-Freeman
The Jumping Frog	Clemens
A Double-Barreled Detective Story	Clemens
The Luck of Roaring Camp	Harte
The Pursuit of the Piano	Howells
Will o' the Mill	Stevenson
Markheim	Stevenson
King Arthur Stories	Pyle
The Bottle Imp	Stevenson
The Piece of String	De Maupassant
The Necklace	De Maupassant
The First Christmas Tree	Van Dyke
The Story of the Other Wise Man	Van Dyke
Buried Treasure	White
The Lady or the Tiger	Stockton
Short Sixes	Bunner
Legend of Sleepy Hollow	Irving
Rip Van Winkle	Irving
Man Without a Country	Hale
Lincoln and the Sleeping Sentinel	Chittenden
Wagner's Operas	Wheelock
Parsifal	
Tannhäuser	
Master Singers	
Lohengrin	

Autobiographies

	Author
Story of My Life	Keller
The Story of My Boyhood and Youth	Muir
The Autobiography of a Super-Tramp	Davies
The Promised Land	Antin
The Americanization of Edward Bok	Bok
The Life of Mary Lyon	Gilchrist
Life of Alice Freeman Palmer	Palmer
Life of Edison	Meadowcraft
Life of Lincoln	Moore
Autobiography	Franklin

Essays

	Author
Travels with a Donkey	Stevenson
Little Rivers	Van Dyke
Literary Lapses	Leacock
Turtle Eggs for Agassiz	Sharp
A Year in the Fields	Burroughs
Birds and Bees	Burroughs
My Literary Friends and Acquaintances	Howells

Poems

	Author
Over the Chimney the Night Wind Sang	Harte
Idylls of the King	Tennyson
Enoch Arden	Tennyson
Tales of the Wayside Inn	Longfellow
Evangeline	Longfellow
The Courtship of Miles Standish	Longfellow
Sohrab and Rustum	Arnold
The Prisoner of Chillon	Byron
Childe Harold's Pilgrimage	Byron
The Vision of Sir Launfall	Lowell
Mister Hop-Toad	Riley
A Greeting	Davies
The Devout Highlander	Horne
The Barrel-Organ	Noyes
Flanders Fields	McRae
The Swimming Hole	Riley
To a Mountain Daisy	Burns
To a Mouse	Burns

Plays

	Author
The Piper	Peabody
The Blue Bird	Maeterlinck
The Merchant of Venice	Shakespeare
The Taming of the Shrew	Shakespeare
As You Like It	Shakespeare
The Servant in the House	Roberts

A Plea Against the Bible in the Schools

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IN the June issue 1922 of Education Mr. E. E. Cates makes a plea for the Bible in the schools and begins by saying: "True education cannot be limited by hampering restrictions that permit the child to be taught about geography but not about God who made the earth; about botany but not about God who clothed the flower; about physiology but not about God who built man; about history but not about divine providence in human affairs." In view of the unpleasant discussions which have so recently arisen relative to the conflict between the teachings of science and the Bible, it would seem that we ought to turn our attention anew to the merits of such a statement

Those who would have us teach the Bible in the schools seem to speak with a vagueness that is entirely out of keeping with the science of education. This new science deals with definite objectives and rather well defined means of obtaining those objectives. Let us first consider the instruction material which the Bible has to offer. One may defend it as a book of instruction on the ground that it is part of the world's best literature, on the ground that it is necessary to moral training, or on the ground that the theistic philosophy contained therein is so vital to the highest possibilities of man that it justifies consideration in the public schools. Any consideration of the merits of Bible instruction must take into account each of the above points treated individually. Any attempt to lump them results in vagueness.

I think that no reader will deny that the Bible is a part of the world's best literature and that, as such, instruction in it can be justified. However, many will object to the teaching of the Bible as literature, for to do so means the subjection of it to

criticism in the light of modern philosophy and science. Under these conditions it would undoubtedly retain all of its moral values and much, if not all, of its spiritual values but would loose much of its religious significance. (The term 'religious' as here used denotes only speculations in regard to Deity.) That God made the world in seven days can only by the greatest stretch of the imagination be reconciled with the Nebular Hypothesis. That Adam and Eve were the first man and woman is totally out of harmony with the theory of evolution. Are we to point this out in the teaching of the Bible? We do not dodge issues in Shakespeare. Then one of two things will follow: either the Bible is the result of the speculations of early man about the origin and nature of things, or it is a book which has been the result of inspiration coming from God and as such is the source of ultimate truth. Dr. Lyman Abbott, Outlook Vol. 129: 596-7, in commenting on a recent decision of the Supreme Court of the State of Washington in which it was held that under the constitution of that state the Bible may not be taught in the public schools, says, "Why? Beause a few ecclesiastics are unwilling that the Bible should be taught as other collections of literature are taught and a few religious enthusiasts fear that their children will be contaminated by the public reading in the schools of the book which was an inspiration to George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, and Theodore Roosevelt." It would seem, then, that there are valid reasons for wishing to introduce the reading of the Bible in the public schools on its literary merits. However, one might well question as to whether the discontent which would be certain to arise if literary criticism were applied to the Bible in the schools would not more than offset the benefits derived therefrom.

The second justification mentioned above for placing the Bible in the schools is that it contains great moral lessons. This is certainly true, for, to again quote Dr. Abbott, Outlook Vol. 129: 596-7, "To the Hebrew we are largely indebted for our moral ideals. . . . There is not in any literature a life more worthy of our following or a character more worthy of our reverent

admiration than Jesus of Nazareth." As in the case of its literary merits, it is here, also, to be regretted that the Bible cannot be used more freely in moral training. I believe, however, that the loss is not as great as we are at first inclined to think; for those moral principles have been so diffused through literature and moral philosophy that they are the common property of all and can be taught with little or no reference to their origin. Then, too, modern psychology is beginning to point out that successful moral instruction is not so much a matter of directing the child's reading and thinking about moral principles as it is a matter of guiding the child's activities along lines which are in keeping with those principles.

It is with greater hesitancy that the writer ventures upon a discussion of the third justification for the teaching of the Bible. Just what value some concept of a personal God has for the future social order is a question for serious speculation. Can social and moral training if rigorously given be substituted for a loving, omniscient, omnipotent, and omni-present personality as a means of social control? Can the individual be directed by forces which take rise from within? If so, is it by this means that man may rise to the zenith of his moral, ethical, and social possibilities? Can we safely turn speculations about Deity over to the philosophers and concern ourselves, as average men, with ideals relevant to this world only? It is true that there have been instances in the past when men concerned themselves too much with another world, the result being that they did not get along very well in this one. However, teaching children to speculate about such matters is one thing and teaching them a form of positive theology is quite another. In a day in which the concept of Deity varies all the way from an anthropomorphic personality to a world of nature regarded as absolutely one, eternal and unchanging, as was held by Spinoza, or an ideal mankind, as was maintained by August Comte, would we not as teachers feel a little bit dogmatic in lending positive content to the term God? Yet, I am not sure but that this is one of the intentions of those who would have us teach the Bible in the

public schools. I cannot believe they are aiming at the teaching of the Bible as a secular book and are interested entirely in the moral and social good which might flow from it. The accomplishment of the theological aim would lead to a poetical rather than a scientific attitude of mind and to passive acceptance rather than critical reflection upon problems of a philosophical or ethical nature and would bring trouble to the student in his more advanced work.

The above, however, is entirely aside from the objection which is usually advanced against religious instruction in the schools, viz., friction aroused due to sectarianism, resulting in bitterness of feeling and in many instances the withdrawal of children to parochial schools. That the parents of such children are justified in their protest is indicated by a statement accompanying a decision of the Supreme Court of Illinois, June 1910,—"The exercises mentioned in the petition constitute worship. They are the ordinary forms of worship usually practiced by Protestant Christian denominations. Their compulsory performance would be a violation of the constitutional guaranty of the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship. If these exercises of reading the Bible, joining in prayer, and the singing of hymns were performed in a church, there would be no doubt of their religious character, and that character is not changed by the place of their performance. If the petitioner's children are required to join in the acts of worship, as alleged in the petition, they are deprived of the freedom of religious worship guaranteed to them by the Constitution. The wrong arises not out of the particular version of the Bible or from the prayer used, but out of the compulsion to join in any form of worship. The free enjoyment of religious worship includes freedom not to worship."

A brief discussion of this problem as worked out by other countries is to the point here. The following quotation from Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education, Vol. I: 371, reveals the condition in England: "A section of the population is in favor of a solely secular system (excluding the Bible from the curriculum), whilst another section favors the teaching of the Bible as a liter-

ary collection of books." Article 149 of the German constitution permits communities to decide for themselves whether or not they want religious instruction in the schools during the period which intervenes before the new law appears. Mr. P. H. Pearson writing in the September number 1922, of Educational Review reports the stand taken by the Leipzig Teachers' Association as follows: "While waiting the regular enactments, the Leipzig Teachers' Association decided to drop the religious hours from the curriculum, without the sanction of a patrons' local referendum. The position taken by the teachers was opposed by the church which resulted in community propaganda conducted by both the church and the teachers. In December 1920 the daily papers announced that 31,000 children in Leipzig had been excused from religion, while 27,000 had been enrolled. The continued work of the church succeeded in getting some excuses cancelled, so that in March, 1921, it was possible to announce that 32,000 had been excused and 33,000 enrolled." The following extract from Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education, Vol. 1: 371, shows that France has gone all the way in eliminating instruction in religion from the schools: "By the association law of July 1, 1901, religious orders had to apply for special authorization from the government for the continuance of their existence and work, and the government exercised its power to refuse authorization. By the law of July 8, 1907, all teaching orders were to be suppressed within ten years. The result is that the State now has a monopoly in schools, and religious instruction, including the Bible is entirely eliminated."

Considering the problem in its entirety it would seem that, while the Bible has much to offer by way of attaining the ends of education, it is still too closely associated with positive theology to make its admission into the curriculum advisable during the present age.

American Notes—Editorial

We confess that we have had periods of misgiving about the wisdom of enacting the "Towner-Sterling Bill," which provides for the recognition by the Federal Government of its responsibility for the schools of the United States, provides a very large appropriation for the purpose of aiding the States in the education of their population, and makes the Secretary of the Department of Education a member of the President's Cabinet. The source of our misgiving is doubtless the instinctive and ingrained prejudice which a New Englander must almost necessarily harbor toward any movement that seems to abridge in any degree the responsibility of the individual citizen to the State, city or town in which he resides, and to transfer to a governmental body at a distance the right to dictate in local affairs. This free land in which we live was settled by thinking men who broke away from the domineering dictation of organizations and governments in order that they might worship God and carry on the affairs of men according to their own consciences and best judgment; and this policy and these convictions have gotten along very well, in the main, from the early times of our history until now. Our school affairs have been, on the whole, intelligently conducted. The responsibility for them has begotten earnest thought and study on the part of the people as a whole, and this has been good for the people as well as for the schools. To delegate this responsibility, even in part, to others,—to those at a distance, who are more or less unfamiliar with local conditions, seems not only objectively a step downward, and dangerous; subjectively, it would seem to lessen the interest of the individual in the problems of education in his own vicinity, and relieve him of the necessity of thinking much about them. This, in time, would tend to dull the popular consciousness of the importance of education and to open the way for profiteering schemes and political chicanery in a field where it would be particularly objectionable and harmful. This feeling has been our sole objection to the passage of this measure,—which has, on the other hand, a large number of attractive and hopeful features, promising a new era for the educational interests of the country.

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It is probably our duty to recognize the fact that we have come to a new era, now, in the process of our development, which necessitates new conceptions of public duty and which makes necessary different methods from those which worked very well when we were laying the

foundations of national institutions and national life. Our educational problem has become so great that it cannot be treated locally only; it has assumed national proportions and relations, and these must be faced nationally. The problems of Massachusetts are different from those of Nevada or South Carolina. The problems of education for a hundred million people are vastly more complicated than those of a hundred thousand. We must cultivate popular intelligence in relation to the larger as well as toward the more limited areas of education. We are now citizens of a great nation as well as of a given city or village. We must help the nation to think out its problems and meet their requirements; and we are not good patriots if we confine our thinking and our responsibility to our own little locality. If there are thousands of illiterates in our body-politic, it is our concern to make them literate just as truly when they are a hundred or a thousand miles away as when they are almost in our own door-yard. They are our fellow citizens, whether they live in Maine or California, North Dakota or Texas.

There are parts of our beloved land that especially need help. In one way or another every part needs the interest, sympathy and aid of every other part. The United States is an entity,—not simply an aggregation. The sore on one of its members endangers the health of all its members. We stand or fall together. One section may need Federal aid today; another may be in need tomorrow. We must think in larger circles than when we were but a few scattered colonies. We must see to it that the domineering politician is kept out of educational cabinets and departments, and that broad-minded, public-spirited, altruistic patriots administer the exalted trusts of the people in relation to the training of our citizens. These are the ideals of the "Towner-Sterling Bill." As such, we are heartily and wholly converted to favor its speedy enactment.

There is a close parallelism between the laws of the human body and those of the human mind. Overload the body with either food or work and it ceases to function normally and healthily. Overload the mind with impressions and they obscure each other and tax the mental powers, leading to inaccuracies of perception and errant actions that are harmful to the individual and to society. Especially harmful are too frequent and too vivid appeals to the emotions. These are in danger of seriously upsetting the balance and self-control of the individual, leading to nervous disturbances that open the way to disease and to crime. Our world is one in which order, rhythm, balance in all things

are necessary. And nowhere more so than in the realm of the intellect and the emotions. Impressions that have no outlet, or an inadequate outlet, are distinctively dangerous and harmful. Expression must balance impression, to produce physical, mental and moral health. A truly educated person has a self-poise which is the most distinctive mark of true culture. It is also the best guarantee of a successful and a happy life. This mental and emotional balance is what makes the difference between the efficient citizen and the pauper, the philanthropist and the criminal, the gentleman and the boor, the lady and the "flapper." A balanced ration for the mind and soul is even more important than for the body. Yet far less thought and care is bestowed upon it in the one case than in the other. Hence the crimes that are so rapidly increasing in society today, making our daily papers largely a record of the horrors that are disrupting homes, blighting careers, disgracing the annals of civilization, and challenging the doctrines and claims of the Christian churches and of the civil law to stop them.

Herein we find the chief reason for our objection to the Moving Picture as it is functioning at the present time.

The Moving Picture has possibilities as an instrument of education. As a means for imparting information it is unsurpassed. If the mere acquiring of information were the whole of education, we need seek no farther. The educational millenium would have arrived with the invention of the "Movie" machine. This machine can hand out more vivid and impressive impressions in an hour than all the text-books in the world can give in a month. But it should be remembered that mere information is not education. The trouble with the Moving Picture impressions is that their volume is so great that they obliterate each other. There is no time to digest them. Opportunity is not given for healthful and purposeful corresponding *expression.* They excite, instead of educate. The craving for emotional excitement is laid hold of by the average "Movie," and our young people are exposed to this tumult of impressions with no corresponding opportunities for normal, healthful and useful expressions in their own daily lives. There is little that is healthfully stimulating in the Moving Picture shows that are shown commercially, everywhere; and all too frequently there are many objectionable glorified villains and cheap heroines, even in the films shown in the name of religion and in the programs of our churches.

It is not difficult for a thoughtful person to find at least one powerful cause for the crime wave which is sweeping the country so alarmingly of late, in the excessive and unbalanced ration of exciting impressions which are being fed to the people, of all ages, by the "Movies." We counsel moderation, to say the least, on the part of all,—especially

those who are aware that they are temperamentally excitable,—in the matter of the Movie habit. Beware of excessive stimulation of nerve centers where corresponding normal healthful expression in subsequent action is not possible.

February is the month of birthdays. Mr. William B. Forbush, Director of the National Honesty Bureau, sends out a note in which he asks:

"What personally do Lincoln and Washington mean to the average school child? Is it not this,—that Washington was an honest boy; that Lincoln was a man of such integrity that he was known as 'Honest Abe'? How about emphasizing old-fashioned honesty now? Doesn't the world need it? We make a lot of thrift in schools, and a lot of domestic science, the hand maid of thrift, because these are such 'practical' subjects. Wouldn't it be practical, in a land where annual losses through theft are over a third of a billion dollars, to say or do something that might help save this incredible leakage? In a time when the age of criminals is growing steadily lower, and the corruption of boyhood by 'the crime trust' is a menacing peril, isn't there room and place in the schools for vigorous counter-education?"

Mr. Forbush has recently been seeing some interesting experiments. In one school he saw the superintendent, as an English exercise, ask six questions out of real life, about what would be honest practice in a given situation. He gave the pupils ten minutes to answer. He was enthusiastic about the results. "The pupils are thinking morally straight—give them the chance," was his testimony. In another instance he saw a teacher correlate an Honesty-lesson with the commercial arithmetic; in another, with the history; in a third, with the spelling. In Montclair a teacher of bookkeeping was telling his pupils how he had just been obliged to refuse to help a recent graduate to secure a bond as an employee, because of his dishonest record in school. Another teacher is helping her pupils compose and produce a play founded upon a biography of honor. This is not an "extra." It is part of the day's work, and, so important is it for the future, it is a part of the day's job.

Not long since, an eminent American business man, became so impressed with the necessity of crime-prevention, that he instituted the "Honesty Bureau," to help teachers revive the Eighth Commandment. A book of methods and stories, entitled "The Honesty Book," has been prepared, and a copy will be freely sent to every teacher who will promise to use it. It will be especially helpful for the February holidays. It will be useful all the year. The address is, The National Honesty Bureau, 115 Broadway, New York.

Book Reviews

OUTLINES OF CHILD STUDY. A Manual for Parents and Teachers. Edited by Benjamin C. Gruenberg, for The Federation for Child Study. With an Introduction by Edward L. Thorndike. The Macmillan Company.

A comprehensive presentation of the problems that are faced by all parents and teachers of children, with wise suggestions for their further study, and extended citations of sources of information. The book is practical, because it is devoted to the consideration of the common every-day experiences of boys and girls of various ages and social conditions.

Another brief manual, confined to a specific problem faced by those who are dealing with children is found in

HOW TO TEACH MANNERS TO SCHOOL CHILDREN. By Julia M. Dewey. Published by Lloyd Adams Noble. Price 50 cents.

This little manual is right to the point. Parents and children themselves will equally value it; for children, as soon as they begin to go out and mingle with other children, and especially when they begin to attend parties and other social gatherings, feel the need of just such guidance as this little book furnishes.

ESSAYS AND ESSAY WRITING. Based on Atlantic Monthly Models. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by William M. Tanner, M. A. (University of Texas). The Atlantic Monthly Press.

"Mining" in a "claim" like the Atlantic Monthly, is a rewarding venture. Nuggets abound on every hand and can be picked up almost at random. The essays included in this volume have been chosen for their permanent human interest. Their average length is such that the casual reader will not be wearied, but rather he will be allured to read on, assured of fresh entertainment and food for thought on each succeeding page. There are five "type-groups," with brief prefaces for each group. The ability to get enjoyment and profit out of this style of writing (for the essayist has a field of his own and it is an art that not everybody acquires) is one to be coveted. It opens new sources of information and wide vistas of inspiration. It is fortunate that such a deposit of pure, sparkling, human thought and feeling exists from which to supply the needs of English departments, and a growing public demand as well.

THE LAND OF HEALTH. By Grace T. Hallock and C. E. A. Winslow. With a Chapter on Exercise, by Walter Camp. Charles E. Merrill Company.

This is one volume in a valuable series of brief but comprehensive books bearing the title of "The Winslow Health Series." It claims that hygiene can be taught to children of from eight to ten years of age. The lessons are in the form of stories. They are interesting and engaging. The health lessons are naturally interwoven with the narrative and are made attractive and definite. The reviewer is impressed with a feeling that the youngsters of today are indeed fortunate in their school books and school tasks as compared to the facilities for learning that existed in a former generation.

RHYTHMIC GAMES AND DANCES FOR CHILDREN. By Mrs. Florence Kirk. Longmans, Green and Company.

An attractive manual of exercises, games, marches and dances for children of four or five years of age. Rhythm is its fundamental principle, as it is of the normal child life. It is claimed that rhythmic marches and dances are beneficial to sub-normal children, even. These exercises give control of the limbs and teach courtesy and emotional self-control. The manual is illustrated and contains the music as well as the words of typical dances and games.

KOREAN FAIRY TALES. William Eliot Griffis. Illustrated. T. Y. Crowell Company. Price $1.60 net.

A very interesting collection of stories that reveal the thought and life of a far-away country, where dwell people who have for many centuries pursued their own original ideals according to customs all their own. Yet, underneath these charming stories, one can feel our common humanity, however we may differ in our modes of expression.

COMPOSITION FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS. By Joseph M. Thomas, Frederick A. Manchester and Franklin W. Scott. The Macmillan Company.

This is a substantial manual of 577 pages, intended for Freshman year students. It is based upon and includes the best of the actual introductory courses of three of the larger unversities. An introductory preface to students engages attention and interest. Chapter two studies composition as a whole, with special reference to exposition. Chapters follow on the paragraph, the sentence, the word, argument, description, narration, the story; and there is an "epilogue" to teachers, and appendices on exposition, argument, description, narration, and a "handbook." The very effective classification of the contents of this volume makes it alluring, comprehensible, and proportionately valuable.

FOUR NEW MOTHER GOOSE PUZZLE GAMES MY CHILDREN LOVE, is the title of a series of illustrated cards, nine and a half by fifteen inches, with a large colored picture at the top, four large-letter rhymes in the middle, and a picture and four lines of nursery rhymes at the bottom, on one side; and on the other, a complicated diagram to be cut out, also four lines of script, and below that, directions for using the cards. Published by Noble and Noble, New York, N. Y., and sold in a handsomely decorated box, this collection is sold at the low price of 50 cents. It is proving very popular for "busy work" with the children of the earlier grades. The art work has been well done. The pictures make the familiar nursery rhymes vivid and impress them upon the memory and the imagination. Directions are given for cutting the cards and arranging the sections in different combinations. A "happy thought" for both teachers and parents, and, especially, for the little folks.

LIVES OF POOR BOYS WHO BECAME FAMOUS. By Sarah K. Bolton. Illustrated. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. Price $2.00 net.

Since this book first appeared there have been numerous reprints. This is sufficient proof of its interest and value. The present edition contains a considerable amount of new material, covering typical examples of lives of "potters, painters, mechanics, inventors, composers, musicians, preachers, soldiers, statesmen, explorers," etc. Besides being inspirational to young people the book will prove of real value to teachers, preachers and others who have to talk frequently to boys and girls, from the school platform, the pulpit, or the lecture room. No argument is more telling than the argument "ad hominem."

PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY, POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, SOCIAL. By Henry Reed Burch, Ph.D. and S. Howard Patterson, A.M. The Macmillan Company.

The main outlines of the subject are here presented and furnish the materials for an introductory course of study of American life. The book is intended for secondary school use. At the head of each chapter a clear outline or analysis of the contents of the chapter is given, which is most helpful to the student or reader; and black-face type paragraph headings and smaller indented marginal designations of special subjects still further aid the reader or student in finding and remembering. The chapters close with questions for discussion, topics for special report, and references. There are numerous illustrations, making the volume altogether complete, usable and satisfactory.

EDUCATION

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A Philosophy of Moral Education for Students, Teachers and Parents

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ONLY those who are secluded from the varied and precarious contacts of our seething social order are indifferent to the need and movement for greater emphasis on moral training. Numerous programs and courses have been suggested for this indispensable field of work, and material good has been accomplished in many communities, but there is a place at the present time for a philosophical consideration of some of the fundamental concepts and ideas involved in any practical and workable theory of ethical education. To neglect the training and exercise of our highest human qualities, the spiritual and the ethical, is to fail to fulfil the noblest and most urgent of aims in our entire program of education. Such an abbreviated and short-circuited training is unfair to youth and dangerous to society; and blessed is that instructor who voluntarily and continuously stresses the moral aspect of the teaching material employed in the daily work of his classroom.

Character has always been one of the hoped-for outcomes and one of the most eagerly sought goals of instruction in home, church and school; but in spite of its having been so highly prized, the results have always been meager because the means and method were inadequate. Never has character been at such a premium as it is today, and never has it been so difficult of attainment for the groups whose measure of human capacity we call average or low; on the other hand, it has never been so surely possible for the natively strong to acquire character qualities of an exceptionally high type. The forces and factors of our rough and ready world today are the raw materials out of which the noblest attributes of greatness and unquestioned success are molded. But even for this fortuned-favored group and especially for the less highly endowed the achievement of any degree of character is very improbable without sheer effort and bitter struggle. The schools must hold themselves liable for the environment, activities, subjects of study, methods of instruction and teacher personnel that are most conducive to mental stimulation and moral inspiration.

We hear a great deal these days about New Year's resolutions, but too little emphasis is put on RESOLUTION. It is the spirit of firmness with self, at any time during the year and at every hour of the day, that marks off the ethical genius and the moral giant. The Julian and Gregorian calendars were arbitrarily established measures of time, and we must not be the slaves of schedules and "scraps of paper." A new year is beginning all the time, and we have the power to set up for ourselves a significant NEW YEAR by the forceful exercise of resolution and the continued practice of some desirable form of behavior. Repeated resolutions undermine and delete our capacity for genuine resolution, and personal pride is frequently offended when defeat follows any attempted project. The necessity for formulating plans for new and better lines of conduct is in itself an evidence of weakness and a confession of failure. Morally sound individuals have no new leaves to turn over. A change of tack and direction is occasionally unavoidable even in the lives of saintly souls, but the real test of true character consists in ascertaining and measuring

the continuity of one's proper deportment. We should always be starting some new form of good behavior, and we should never cease carrying on any socially sanctioned activity already begun; but if change and reformation are necessary, it is wise to start the improved practices somewhat informally and experimentally before formally and fearlessly launching forth toward a final victory or a complete cure.

Serious students of education and all in positions of authority over children should have their knowledge and doctrines of moral education rooted deeply in basic ideas and broad concepts. They are devoted to the cause of racial and social progress and should feel unusually concerned for the problem of character building. There are certain facts and principles with which all should be familiar, for instance, that the best possessions a person can own are: an acutely sensitive conscience, a morally guided will, sympathetic appreciation of other people's problems, such cardinal virtues as sincerity, honesty, and justice, freedom to rise to superb heights and an effectively functioning habit system. A mastery of the messages found in James' *Psychology* and Dewey's *Democracy and Education* will contribute indispensable, vitalizing elements to a teacher's or parent's practical code of ethics and philosophy of moral instruction.

There are ten points, presented as concepts of peculiar kinds of education and exceptional items of emphasis, in our outline of an attitude and policy of moral eduaction. They are as follows: physical training, intellectual training, training of the emotions, religious training, ethical training, social training, training in art, literary training, musical training and training for production. These are to function as guiding signs and service stations in a campaign for character building. They are to be parking places for persons in doubt or distress. They are havens and shelter for the weary and the sorely tempted. They will serve as bright clouds to light the way toward victory and success. And from a more matter-of-fact point of view they will prove to be very practical and helpful suggestions for pursuing one's ethical education. Each of these divisions will be taken up separately.

1. Physical Training—Biology and Physiology have helped us to see how essential bodily development is, and every boy and girl should be impressed at an early date with the supreme urgency of living hygienically and actively. Youths should have pictures on visible walls and in their imaginations of the perfection of robustness and vigor, which will be models to emulate and ideals toward which to strive. Physical culture is first and foremost in importance—dieting, sleeping, exercising, playing, bathing and deep breathing, nothing can exceed these in direct value to health and the many human attainments so dependent on health. Persistent and well proportioned periods of calisthenics, gymnastics, athletics, dancing, plays and games with the proper supervision provide a foundation which facilitates and expedites the efforts of parents and teachers to cultivate in their charges character worthy of the painstaking enterprise undertaken. Children who make a continual practice of thinking health and building strength will not only ordinarily be well, but virile, pure-minded and morally sound.

2. Intellectual Training—Psychology and Logic are concerned with the nature and cultivation of the mental powers, and most students agree that these subjects underlie and are co-ordinated with Ethics. Take care that the mind is thoroughly developed and well controlled, and behavior will follow along the same proper channel. Supervised and directed exercises in associating ideas in connection with the thinking process, memory and imagination will establish a machinery for the mental life that will mean balance and stability. The practice and habit of reflective thought are favorable for a morally controlled life, and training in the technique of logical procedure has a steadying influence on human conduct. Hold up before young people the ideal of an alert, discreet, diligent and dependable mind; by so doing you establish an ethical atmosphere, and by the laws of substitution and preoccupation you prepare and lead the way toward right moral conduct.

3. Training of The Emotions—Another essential phase of moral development is the exercise and cultivation of the emotions,

including the modification and sublimation of the instincts. The feelings have been sadly slighted in most educational systems of the past and in some outlines of ethical instruction recommended in the present day. The feelings play a more vital role in determining every-day conduct than many people seem to realize. The source and nature of human feelings should be the common information of all maturing students, and the importance of emotionally inspired motives should be emphasized in all teaching. High thinking and deep feeling usually accompany each other, and a clean, controlled bodily organism is the ultimate support of both; but physique and intellectuality are impotent to guide the life of an average, normal person unless topped off with a system and supply of feelings that vitalize and give moral tone to even the ordinary affairs of life. No truly great deeds are performed without some sentiment and emotional expression accompanying these acts. Lives void of sentiment are insipid and colorless, and many apparently successful people who boast of being scientific and unsentimental have a certain sentiment and emotional tone attached to their pride of achievement and vaunted lack of sentimentality. Things thoroughly understood and deeply appreciated invariably bring genuine emotional experiences, and life would be drab indeed were it not for the feelings, both the deliberately evoked and the personally unsolicited, which give richness and zest to work and play. A foundational and invaluable concept in any formal view of the scope of moral education is recognition of the potentiality of the emotional nature of man and the necessity of holding out to youth the importance of cultivating to the highest those feelings which are sure to determine the ethicalness of daily conduct.

4. Religious Training—Every child should have a more or less clear idea of God, for some sort of belief in God is essential to moral behavior. There is a longing after God in every person's heart and an instinct prompting the search for at least a degree of reality in connection with one's understanding of God. Every child must be taught some form of worship, since ceremony, sacrifice and service are historically associated with religious

worship in all ages and among all nations,. Students, teachers and parents should evolve for themselves philosophies of religion which will help them to inculcate spiritual qualities and reverential attitudes in their youthful charges. The greatest of our emotional possibilities is sincere religious experience. It is unnecessary to aspire to the ecstasy of the mystic, but to miss the sheer joy of personal contact with an omnipotent and affectionate God is to fail to feel the most profound and thrilling sensations of delight that living man is capable of enjoying. So many of the so-called pleasures of the world are superficial and ephemeral that it would be gross negligence and injustice to call an education complete without a carefully worked out and thoroughly administered course of religious training. The Church and the home have an important mission and a wonderful opportunity to fill in and cap off the secular and scientific education provided in the schools.

5. Ethical Training—But we must go much farther and secure by generalized and practical religious education a transfer of training to the actual life activities of real people. Religious training is after all primarily a worthy means to a noble end. Its chief function is instrumental, although religious exaltation is interesting in itself and pious living a very soul satifying accomplishment. Worship and belief must result in ethical conduct, or else we can never establish the Kingdom of God on earth. Indeed, we have no clear social case for religion unless we can show that life and property will be safer and business relationships carried on in better faith because of it. We must instil into our young people the necessity for daily self-discipline and the possession of dominating moral ideas. They must be shown the romance of the struggle and combat against the forces of evil. In the days of chivalry so many of the foes of the knights in armor were imaginary enemies of man. Today there are many times more really dangerous monsters to be overthrown, personal and social enemies, and the spoils are sufficient to lure the most valiant and fearless conquerors. Conscience was never allowed to grow dull during the Puritan régime, and in getting away

from some of the outworn and undesirable restrictions of earlier days we have lost the emphasis formerly placed on the cultivation of a sensitive conscience. There is within the human breast the power to differentiate right from wrong, but this precious power is devitalized unless kept keen with exercise. There is no surer evidence of a dying soul than the gradual desensitizing of this incalculably serviceable feature of our nature. Nothing can supplant old-fashioned conscience as a guide to behavior. Physical vigor is a great advantage; intellectual penetration is a tremendous help; but there must be conscience, clear and persuasive, if we are to be assured of the proper responses in those we are rearing for citizenship and service. The ultimate goal of all moral training is freedom. When habit systems have been established and ideals fairly well realized the human aspirant for perfection reaches a state of control and development permitting him to launch forth freely in new fields of endeavor. To be free is to be self-sustaining mentally and morally. To be free is to be saved at least for this world. To be free is to be ready to render a striking and lasting service to mankind, for it is only those who have attained freedom in some degree who are at liberty to rise to heights sublime, from which they are privileged to receive mountain-peak visions of new worlds and fields untrod. We must make an appeal to children to seek the higher good and the larger opportunity, for only thus are they led to reach the maximum of achievement for which they are by nature endowed. Goodness and greatness must be linked in the picture we paint of a fully unfolded nature and a completely realized personality; and we must point out very concisely and concretely the road that leads to moral rectitude and human perfection.

6. Social Training—Familiarity with our living institutions is one of the essential steps and means in the development of character, for it is by participation in these that the finer qualities are revealed and enlarged. A knowledge of the most important facts of history is also indispensable in the pursuit of virtue. We do not agree with Socrates that knowledge is virtue, but it is indisputable that one cannot become adequately socialized without considerable acquaintance with the facts of the story of

our developing institutions. The spirit of co-operation and the ability to co-operate effectively with others, even those of contrary opinions, are high attributes of social efficiency and ethical competency. Some authorities have even associated inseparably the social and the moral, thereby rightly stressing performance and the communal phases of morality. No education is ever finished, and certainly not until there has been sufficient drill on the known solutions of big social problems and adequate practice in the art of living among many kinds of people. Educational and Ethical Sociology will some day be recognized as major subjects in the life preparation of citizens in general and teachers in particular.

7. Training in Art—Familiarity with and appreciation of the beautiful add much to an education that aims to prepare for life. The natural world around us should be the object of our intelligent adoration, for it is a part of the divine plan to provide man with an attractive home and an inspiring environment in which to fulfill his life obligations. Men and women who are constantly on the lookout for the lovely and the picturesque seldom see so much of the coarse and ugly as those who have not been instructed in finding and enjoying the better things. The unique and ennobling creations of architecture, sculpture and painting are bright spots in a world of many commonplace and materialistic things. Parents and teachers have a serious responsibility to discharge in unveiling and appreciatively presenting to the younger generation those art products which are truly beautiful and elevating. Children should be given numerous and liberal opportunities to give full and unrestrained expression to whatever talent they may have and to acquire whatever skill may prove of practical utility and personal satisfaction in life. The teaching of art has a distinctly moral aspect when directed by those who are living exemplars of the beauty and goodness which they interpret. Form and color make an appeal to the ethical as well as to the aesthetic sense, and the skilful and cordial teaching of art is a factor of unrivalled value in the moral training of children. The teaching of drawing,

painting and art appreciation should certainly be regarded as a veritable labor of love.

8. Literary Training—Literature reveals the inmost thoughts of great minds and the heart secrets of races. In fiction, drama and poetry there is an inexhaustible abundance of ethical material. Our pupils should be taught to look to literature as a source of inspirational and moral content. They must be taught to distinguish the good from the bad, for there are bad books in great quantities as well as good books of great worth. It is not always the book which delights that will result in the strongest appeal for right living. Training in oral and written expression is also conducive to the development of the best tendencies to correct behavior when supervised by those who know the incidental and direct benefits from creating and verbally clothing original thought. Every thought is inclined to precipitate action, and ideas fully and correctly phrased determine in part the course of conduct that may ensue. Pride in language and power in the process of communicating thoughts and feelings lend notable assistance in the building of character and personality. It is difficult to conceive how an unlettered race could be a nation of morally responsible beings; on the other hand, it is easy to see integrity of mind and reliability of character in a group thoroughly trained in language and literature.

9. Musical Training—Music has power as well as charm, and the public schools have done well to adopt it as one of the required subjects for all of the grades. All who have talent for either vocal or instrumental performance should be provided by the public with expert instruction for both individual achievement and mass participation. Lessons in the history of music and the appreciation of the creations of the most famous masters should be given to all who have the least taste for and interest in this knowledge. On the whole, the lives of distinguished musicians have been long and exemplary, evidencing the moral influence of music. Ancient systems of education stressed music in the curriculum, and Plato was emphatic when treating of the ethical effect of hearing and discoursing the right kinds of com-

positions. The music of the masters is inherently moral, and any pretentious course of moral training will make a decided effort to utilize to the limit this rich and influential subject.

10. Training in Production—Work implies a well used mind, and it results in correct thinking at least during a large part of the day. Training in and eagerness for production are a fair guarantee of freedom from temptation and corruption. Occupational instruction and trade training lead to wholesome interests and worthy employment. The idle and untrained are the ones frequently guilty of unethical conduct, and parents and teachers must hold themselves sponsors for the whole-hearted activity of their children in worth-while enterprises. Work, toil, produce, bring forth—these are the injunctions which every young man and woman should heed. Those who make are the ones who lead in the honest pursuits of men. Children should be taught to respect the creations of other people; and their own efforts at production should be motivated in the home and the school. Children should be urged and taught to take a sincere pride in performing well or producing completely whatever they set out to do. Consciousness of having produced useful and needed articles or instructive and entertaining activities gives moral stability and ethical quality to personality and character. This tenth type of training is the consummation of all the others operating successfully. It is the laboratory for experimentation and practice, where real learning and growth occur and where formulas and theories are transformed into living habits and skill.

These ten outstanding ideas and divisions in the larger field of education are of utmost significance in one's philosophy of moral instruction, but unless they are followed and supported by a list of standards and goals, they will be rather meaningless and impotent in actual operation in the lives of those we are to train. It is necessary, therefore, to present ten aims and possible outcomes of an acceptance of the philosophy outlined above. They are as follows: health, objectiveness, creativeness, industry, altruism, loyalty, reverence, idealism, self-realization and personality. Each of these will be defined in order.

1. Health—By health is meant physical and mental freedom from discomfort and disease, a condition of body and mind distinctively sound and sturdy, characteristics found in the man or woman of fine moral fiber and strong social influence. Health of the best kind must be one of the specific and imperative requirements in any valid program of moral education.

2. Objectiveness—Excessively subjective minds frequently brood and become morbid. Thoughts turned inward diffuse or concentrate too intensively on some personal superiority or defect. The minds that go out into the world of real objects and thoughts that link up with actual material things for purposes of practical and profitable employment are thus safe-guarded against unnatural and harmful obsessions. Objectiveness is a desirable mental trait and a purifying intellectual attitude. Our children should be encouraged to think in terms of worth-while things, for morbidity is an evil that must be combatted continually and strenuously. It is a tendency in school children that objective-mindedness can aid in overcoming.

3. Creativeness—Objectiveness is not enough. A quality more substantial and dynamic should be the purpose of those who work to develop character in youth. Minds dead-set on creating and distributing for beneficial public consumption are pretty sure to be protected against the forces of evil. Creativeness is a noble personal attribute, and it is intrinsically ethical.

4. Industry—Even creativeness alone is not enough to establish our case for assured character formation. Industry is an essential moral concomitant of objectiveness and creativeness. One must not only be employed in working with worthy objects of production, but one must keep everlastingly and busily centered on the thing being created. There is no evidence of good faith without interminable and unrelenting labor. Christ was a carpenter, St. Paul a maker of tents and the redoubtable Peter a most assiduous and successful fisherman. Faithful application to assumed projects testifies to character meriting high praise and bountiful reward.

5. Altruism—Still another attribute and objective in moral training must insist on the attitude and habit of external relationships. Otherism is incontestably healthful and ethical, and those people who are most concerned for the welfare and happiness of others are pretty generally moral in most matters. Altruism must not be confused with meddling interference and offensive intrusions. Altruism is friendly, modest and unquestionally sympathetic, and it is none the less productive of noteworthy results.

6. Loyalty—We learn the meaning and acquire the habit of loyalty by swearing allegiance and remaining faithful to persons, institutions and causes. Morality implies loyalty, and a logical inference from disloyalty is immorality. Breaking faith and destroying trust are the unpardonable social sins.

7. Reverence—Pagan idolatry has elements of merit, which we cannot afford to lose in our Christian civilization. A moderate amount of idol worship is not only legitimate but imperative. The youth of ancient and medieval times learned to respect, revere and idolize to the point of earnest emulation the heroes, institutions and ideals of their times. In heathen lands today a similar reverence is to be found among the natives. Reverence to such idolaters means reckless disregard of self and acute suffering for causes and movements deemed worthy of the fullest sacrifice. The quality of reverence is all too rare in the youth of today, and our education of home and school must provide some training to restore this remarkably moral attribute.

8. Idealism—An ideal is a forward-moving goal based on an idea that drives one toward the attainment of the end sought. No life can be genuinely moral that is not grounded in the longing for remote goals and ideals difficult of attainment. Our Caesars and Napoleons have had ideals as well as our Pasteurs and Edisons, for there is the long, strong pull of ambition even among the selfish. Ideals are sometimes founded on crude concepts and unpraiseworthy aspirations, and it must be the pressing purpose of teachers and parents to inculcate the most commendable and morally stimulating ideals. There can be little moral growth

without ideals which have the dynamic spur to heights otherwise unseen and unsought.

9. Self-Realization—The unfoldment, development and utilization of all of one's powers is an important phase of moral education. There can be no saner or more scientific statement of what a complete, well-rounded education is than the above simple definition of self-realization. To be oneself, fully and frankly, to have the best potential qualities released and employed, to have one's natural intelligence freed for personal gratification and abundant service, to be trained to the most finished point of delicate technique and to have had called forth the profoundest emotions and the exalted thoughts is to be best equipped to meet the exigencies of life.

10. Personality—Personality is what we are when our innate capacities and aptitudes have been fostered and relatively perfected. No individuals are merely mechanically good. Goodness is pre-eminently a matter of soul and motive. It shows in everything that we do, for it is what we really are. Character and personality are inseparable, for virtue is the *sine qua non* of unchallengeable individuality. When we labor to inspire the children under our care to build character, we are at the same time giving them lessons in personality training; and personality, convincing, conquering personality, is a prerequisite to success in every profession and calling.

In conclusion there is only to add that it is hoped that these lists of classes of training and kinds of aims which are the substance of this philosophy of moral education will help some students, teachers and parents to provide better for their own character development and that of their children and pupils. All education is ethical when the highest aim of instruction is morality. Our greatest need is virtue. Let us of the teaching fraternity band together to fight a more effective warfare against ignorance and vice.

The School Child's Dilemma

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GROWTH in plant and animal life proceeds by certain changes within the individual, and not, as often assumed, by the mere addition of something from without. When the gardener wants his plants, to grow well, he provides them with air, heat, light, moisture, and proper soil. This is all he can possibly do for them. The plants then use these conditions in their own way, and grow. To cultivate a plant, therefore, is merely to provide it with an appropriate environment, with the conditions of growth. The relation of growth to environment in the human body is precisely the same as in plants. We provide a child—a normal child, of course—with good, wholesome food, and he grows. If we give him insufficient or improper food, growth is retarded or takes place imperfectly. Now, mental growth obeys the same law. We consciously or unconsciously surround the child with associates, books, objects to observe and manipulate, and other things conducive to growth, which taken collectively, we call mental environment. That is, we provide the conditions and mental growth takes place by the mind reacting to this environment. And, as with plant or the child's body, we can do nothing more than provide the environment.

One of the difficult problems in education arises from the fact that mental growth is specific, at least to a considerable degree, rather than general. This specificity of growth is exemplified in the child who is polite at home, but not at his neighbor's; or who uses good English in the class-room, but vulgar language upon the playground. We also see the manifestation of this peculiarity of growth in certain professional politicians who are scrupulously honest with their friends, but grafters of the first magnitude when dealing with government business. In other

words, politeness at home, good English in the class-room, and honesty with immediate friends do not give reasonable assurance of politeness away from home, good English upon the street, and honesty in dealing with government business, respectively.

In attempting to develop a given quality it is essential, therefore, that a favorable environment be provided at *all times*—that it be continuous. If honesty, for instance, is the line of growth desired, the environment must be such as will cause the child to be honest on all occasions. If the environment for a part of the time makes for honesty, and for the remainder of the time it is conducive to dishonesty, growth will in all likelihood take place in two directions: the child will be honest or otherwise depending upon conditions. It is the lack of this continuity of environmental influence that places the school child in a real dilemma.

The truth of the matter is the child lives in two rather distinct environments which conflict sharply much of the time. For the purpose of convenience in discussion, we shall call these environments the home and the school, the former including all that the school does not have under its direct control. Let us consider now the extent to which these environments conflict, so as to appreciate the difficult and vexatious position of the child.

The school of today attempts to develop proper mental attitudes towards living conditions. It encourages the pupil to live in well ventilated rooms, and gives him reasons for breathing pure air at all times. It also teaches him to eat wholesome, nourishing food in order that he may grow physically and enjoy good health. It points out the influences of eating excessive amounts of candy, cake, peanuts, and the like. It warns him against the use of stimulants, such as tea, coffee, alcohol, and cigarettes. Finally, it tells him of the necessity of plenty of sleep for the child who is growing.

The school also undertakes to develop in the child what we might call social virtue. It encourages growth along the line of honesty, not only in his school studies but also in his play. In fact, supervised play is now a practice in many schools, and one of the purposes is to teach honesty in play. The school exhorts the child to give value received, whether he is dealing with money

or service values. It encourages altruism and frowns upon selfishness in the child's relations with those about him. It holds up high ideals of service and accomplishment as represented by such characters as Washington, Lincoln, and Florence Nightingale.

The school, furthermore, lays stress upon certain personal virtues. It encourages modesty in dress, in the use of language, and even in dancing where modesty has been conspicuously absent for several years, at least. Then there is the love for good reading which many schools attempt to develop in the child. He is urged to read the best books and magazines, and in some cases is required to read these as a part of his school work.

Unfortunately these attempts of the school are, in many cases, only feebly supported by the home. The child must live in a house that is poorly ventilated, or not ventilated at all. He is permitted to eat whatever appeals to his appetite, and this usually includes excessive amounts of sweets and pastry. Not only this, but he drinks tea and coffee two or three times each day. In imitation of his father, older brothers, uncles, and neighbors, he begins to smoke cigarettes before he is out of the primary grades; and he hears his elders joking more or less approvingly of the man who gets drunk from the use of alcoholic liquors.

Again, the child often knows of dishonest practices within the home, and hears plans whereby money may be made without giving value received—and the scheme is considered good business. When he goes into the street to play, he finds all kinds of dishonesty practiced in order to win a contest. Or when he goes to witness the baseball team of his home town play a team from a neighboring town, he usually sees players attempting to win contrary to the rules of the game or the decisions of the umpire, and the crowd vociferously gives its approval; and probably before the game is over, he learns that the pitcher on the opposing team is a university man playing under an assumed name in order to deceive the athletic authorities of his alma mater. The ideals of the home, as indicated by the topics of conversation, are too frequently the prize fighter, the skillful gunman, and persons of immoral character who get their names in the headlines of news-

papers. And when the child goes to the movies, much of the conduct portrayed and applauded is that involved in fighting, robbing, deceiving, and other activities which do not inspire growth along desirable social and moral lines.

The language of the home environment in many cases is not clean; it is such as could not be used in polite society. Even within the walls of the home, the language is often profane and vulgar, and upon the street, it is colored until it is repulsive to common decency. Modesty in dress at the present time has become a real problem, particularly with girls. If girls believe in modest dress, it will be in part because they have not been influenced by pictures found in many newspapers, magazines, and moving-picture shows. Finally, reading-matter in the home is yet unsatisfactory. With the exception of homes whose conscious aim is culture, the child's reading is entirely free from supervision, and is of a cheap character, portraying largely adventures in anti-social activities.

The child's situation, then, amounts to this: One environment says "eat wholesome food, breathe pure air, be honest, avoid selfishness, set up high ideals, be modest, and read good books;" the other one says, at least by its indifference, "don't do it."

In this conflict of environments, the home has a decided advantage, particularly in regard to the amount of time. If the child is in school six hours a day for nine months of the year, he is in the school environment only about twenty-five per cent of the time he is awake, and in the home environment the remaining seventy-five per cent. Since he is in the home environment three times as much as in the school, it is easy to understand why the child's growth is so commonly along the lines found in the home rather than along those of the school. This advantage of the home also explains why the child is often inclined to discount the teaching of the school; since so many things taught in school are not practiced in the home, he comes to disbelieve in the school.

It is especially noteworthy that the work of the school in attempting to develop character is frequently nullified by the home—and the school is blamed for ineffective work. The conflict of environments also helps to explain the fact that the child

so often carries with him two standards, which we sometimes call a double personality—a Dr. Jekyl and a Mr. Hyde. And, if most people possess a Dr. Jekyl and a Mr. Hyde, it is more likely the result of growing up under the influence of two conflicting environments than of any innate tendency towards a double personality.

The obvious solution of this dilemma in which the school child is placed is the unification of his environment, thus making growth along desirable lines continuous. That is, the school and the home must unite more completely for the conscious, purposeful training of the child. It means that there must be some agreement as to what the school shall teach, especially along moral and hygienic lines, and that the home must take the responsibility of putting into practice what the school teaches. This will necessarily involve a more active interest on the part of most parents in the welfare of their children. It will mean that they must devote some time to visiting schools or attending parent-teachers meetings, or both, in order to find out what the school is attempting to do and in what way they may continue the influence of the school by making the environment of the home continuous with the efforts of the school. It is commonly difficult for parents to find time for such co-operative work in promoting the welfare of their children, although there is usually not much difficulty in finding time for meetings in which business interests are involved or for card parties, teas, and other "social" activities.

It is entirely proper for the school to take the initiative in bringing about a closer relationship between the home and the school; but there is no reason why the initiative should not be taken by the home. Moreover, when the school does take the initiative, as it commonly does, the parents should show an active interest in the work, instead of the indifference which they usually manifest. The time has come when it should no longer be necessary for the teacher to plead with parents for co-operation in the training of their children. It is time for the home to "face-about" and assume its part of the responsibility in education.

Teaching Mathematics in High Schools

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TEACHING in its widest sense is closely dependent upon how we study. Consequently if we wish to formulate a theory of the former, we must begin with an analysis of the latter. This is natural and necessary because pupils as a rule do not know how to study. They waste much time and energy and often get nowhere. We may present our material ever so carefully and ever so clearly and the pupils may be ever so earnest and ever so interested but unless we also show them how to work systematically, how to assimilate knowledge, the results will be pitifully small. Therefore this conclusion can be made, that to be successful in teaching a subject we must at the same time teach how to study that which we teach.

In order to teach how to study it will be necessary first to determine what are good habits of study. What do we do when we begin serious study? What does a skilled student do? In general a skilled student does three things. Of course he does much more than this but there are three things that should be emphasized. First, he searches out and writes down important facts and principles of whatever he is working on. Second, he looks over this material, he classifies it and arranges it in groups, —small groups that are so much easier to get hold of. Third, he files away a summary of each group in his mental filing system where it can readily be recalled when needed.

An immature student cannot do all of this. He can probably do very little of it, and here is our opportunity to guide him along these three lines just mentioned. First, by carefully worded questions we can lead him to find out and write down important facts and principles of his topic. Second, by an organized notebook we can show him how to classify his material and arrange it in small groups. Third, by short but frequent drills on sum-

maries and processes we can strengthen his power of recall and his facility.

This then is the theory which we are to apply to our teaching of mathematics. As to content of the course, we will assume that in the eighth or ninth grade we take up the simpler parts of algebra to quadratics and also some observational geometry and numerial trigonometry. In the following years we develop an acquaintance with deductive geometry and complete the algebra. Allowing this to be our subject matter how shall we apply our theory to the algebra and to the geometry? Consider the algebra. The first suggestion of the theory is, by carefully worded questions we can lead him to find out and write down important principles and processes. As an example of this plan there follows a list of questions which are part of the Preparatory Work for Quadratic Equations. These are very carefully selected and are intended to include everything that the student should think about before attempting the exercises of this topic.

PREPARATORY WORK.

1. If $x^2 = 4$, what does x equal?
2. Write without multiplying $(2a - 3b)^2$.
3. State the rule for completing the square.
4. Complete the square $x^2 + x$?
5. Eliminate denominators $\frac{x}{2} + \frac{x+1}{4x} - \frac{3x-2}{4x+1} = 0$
6. Factor $x^2 + 5ax - 6a^2$.
7. Simplify $\frac{2 \pm 2\sqrt{11}}{2}$
8. Find the square root of each side, $x^2 + 4x4 = 9$.
9. Find the square root of 41.

Second, by an organized note-book we can show him how to classify his material and arrange it in small groups. A specimen page of a note-book is below. Each page should contain a complete topic so that the pupil can get a clear view of the whole

thing at a glance and not have to look over several pages. This page is a summary of the group and its models should be completed by the pupil.

SIMULTANEOUS EQUATIONS INVOLVING QUADRATICS.

136. There are two general methods of solution:

1. By graphs, approximately.
2. By getting a linear equation, and substitution.

There are two common cases:

Case

1. One linear, one quadratic method. Substitution.
2. Both quadratic. Addition and subtraction and case 1.
   a. To eliminate one variable.
   b. To eliminate the second degree terms.
   c. To eliminate the constant terms when both equations are homogeneous; then factor.

(Models of 1, 2*a*, 2*b*, and 2*c*.)

Third, by short but frequent drills on the summaries and their applications we can strengthen his power of recall and his facility. Sets of review questions and three minute test examples form a large part of this work. A few review questions on Factoring are:

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. State the four common cases of factoring.
2. Cases 2 and 3 are special forms of what?
3. How do the cases of factoring compare with those of special products?
4. How can a polynomical sometimes be factored if it has more terms than these cases require?
5. What even exponents can be considered odd?
6. State the four steps in systematic factoring.

The following page of observational Geometry leads the pupil to find out and write down important principles:

7. *Supplementary Angles* have a sum equal to a straight angle.

FIGURES

a. If two adjacent angles have their exterior sides in a straight line, what can be said of the angles?

b. If two adjacent angles are supplementary what can be said of their exterior sides?

Illustrate by a figure:

1. A straight line doubled.
2. A straight line bisected.
3. The sum of two straight lines.
4. An angle doubled.
5. Two perpendicular lines.
6. Two oblique lines, etc.

In deductive geometry the definite and some of the first principles should be presented in the form of questions whose answers are to be found. This searching out and writing down correspond to the first suggestion of the theory and are valuable. The theorem should be arranged in small groups, each group with a single purpose, as illustrated in the specimen page:

PERPENDICULAR LINES.

The basic method is:

If one straight line meets another straight line making two adjacent angles equal, the lines are perpendicular.

122. Two points each equidistant from the ends of a line determine the perpendicular bisector of that line.

123. Construct the perpendicular bisector of a given straight line.

124. Construct a perpendicular to a given straight line from a point in the line.

125. Construct a perpendicular to a given straight line from a point outside the line.

126. A line perpendicular to one of two parallel lines is perpendicular to the other.

127. The diagonals of a rhombus bisect each other at right angles.

SUMMARY.

128. State five methods of proving lines perpendicular.

129. EXERCISES.

1. The bisector of the vertical angle of an isosceles triangle is perpendicular to the base, etc.

The general methods of attack are placed at the beginning in heavy type for emphasis, and particular methods in a body of notes for reference. When each new theorem is taken up, there should be a careful discussion of what method is to be used, and the proof should be developed along this method and written in the note-book. A summary closes each group and is followed by exerecises applying this summary. Sets of review questions are used, such as :

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. Summarize congruent triangles into four cases.
2. What is the principal use of congruent triangles?
3. What is a converse theorem? An opposite theorem?
4. What is the indirect method of proof?
5. State four methods of proving a quadrilateral is a parallelogram.
6. What are the two commonest methods of proving lines parallel?

The aim then in all of this is to each not only mathematics but how to study mathematics. If the teacher keeps this aim distinctly in mind, and if this aim continually directs our questions, our note-books, and our drills according to the above theory, the results will be more nearly commensurate with the time and energy involved.

The American Indian; His Progress and His Needs

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BEFORE the explorers and colonists came to America, the Indians lived a happy, idle, and care-free, life. The man hunted, fished and fought, while the squaws did the housework, field work and helped put up the tents or wigwams, besides caring for the children. The Muskhogees lived south of the Tennessee River, the Creeks, Seminoles, Choctaws and Chickasaws being the main tribes. The Iroquoians occupied the land from the Delaware and Hudson rivers to and beyond the St. Lawrence and Lakes Ontario and Erie, also small tracts in North Carolina and Tennessee. The chief tribes of the Iroquois proper are the Hurons, Eries Cherokees, Tuscaroras and the Five Nations, a confederacy of Central New York consisting of the Senecas, Cayugas, Onondagas, Oneidas, and Mohawks.

The remainder of the country, east of the Mississippi, was occupied by the Algonquian group, consisting of the Mohegans, and Pequots of New England; the Delawares of Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland; the Powhatans of Virginia; the Shawnees of the Ohio Valley; and many others around the Great Lakes.

All the Indians, except the Iroquois, liked the French. The Iroquois hated the French because Champlain had helped other Indians in a fight against the Iroquois. The reason for the Indians liking the French was this: Such good, old Jesuit Missionaries, as Father Marquette, tried to convert the Indian. The French even went so far as to marry the Indian girls. But among the English there was no such mingling of races. The Indian scorned and the English hated. Many of the most rude, fierce, and contemptous Englishmen encroached upon the Indians' Hunting-grounds and paid them by curses and threats.

But in Penn's colony all was different. He made a treaty with the Indians under a large elm tree near Philadelphia. The Indians kept the history of this treaty by strings of Wampum, and they would often count over the shells on a clean piece of bark, and rehearse its provisions. It has been said: "It was the only treaty never sworn to, and the only one never broken."

The Spanish were harsh and cruel, going to such extremes as to cut off the Indian's hands or ears for misbehavior. There were many massacres during the old Colonial Days. Among the principal ones were King Philip's War in Massachusetts, and the Pequot War in Connecticut, when that whole tribe was wiped out.

The Indians with whom Oglethrope of Georgia made peace said: "The eagle signifies swiftness; and the buffalo, strength. The English are swift as a bird to fly the vast seas, and as strong as a beast before their enemies. The eagle's feathers are soft and signify love; the buffalo's skin is warm and means protection; Therefore, love and protect our families."

During the French and Indian Wars, the Iroquois, who stood staunch for the English, laid siege on Montreal in the summer of 1689 and roasted the French and their Indians under Montreal's own walls. But in the dead of the next winter the French and Indians burned Schenectady, N. Y., Salmon Falls, N. H.; Loyal, Me., now Portland; and a little later Exeter, N. H. In 1692 York, Me. was attacked and one-third of its whites were killed. In 1694 Castine was taken and one hundred scalped and tomahawked. But the boldest of all was in 1697, when Haverhill, not thirty-five miles from Boston, was attacked. On the last of February, 1704, three hundred and fifty French and Indians entered Deerfield, Mass., set fire to the town, killed forty-seven people, and took one hundred and twelve captives.

During the Revolution the British bribed the Indians to attack women and children while the men were in the army. The worst of these outrages were at Wyoming and Cherry Valley, N. Y. General Sullivan with his Yankee troops invaded the territory of the Six Nations and punished them by burning the forty Indian villages and utterly destroying Indian power in that state.

During Washington's administration, the Middle-West Indians

waged war against the settlers, but they were routed by "Mad Anthony" Wayne. Later in 1811, Tecumseh formed a confederation of the North West Tribes, but they were routed in a fierce fight at Tippecanoe, General Harrison being the victor this time. In 1813-14 the Creek Indians attacked the defenseless women and children in the garrisons, but they were stopped by "Old Hickory" Jackson. From 1832-42 the Black Hawk War, in the North West Territory, was waged by Osceola against General Thompson, Major Dode, and Colonel Taylor.

There was not much serious Indian trouble until 1876, when the Sioux Indians refused to go to the reservation, and General Custer was sent to force them to go. He met the enemy June 25th and all but one of the white men were killed; however, the Indians were repulsed when Colonel Reno received re-enforcements and hurried to find the enemy.

Now we will go further West. The Pueblo Indians have been civilized since the earliest recorded history. De Vaca tells us that they lived in big houses, wove cloth, and made pottery. They owned a rich land lying between the Rio Grande and its tributaries, which they have irrigated for about three or four thousand years. At present there are 7000 Pueblo Indians in New Mexico, owning about 765,000 acres. The Pima Indians settled along the Gila Valleys centuries ago. They are industrious and support themselves by farming on the land they themselves have irrigated from the Gila. But the settlers have stepped in and, during 15 years, they have used all the Indian's waters and left him with perfectly dry lands.

Is the Indian a citizen? Our Declaration of Independence, our Constitution, our laws, and the decisions of our courts, all say he is a citizen. Well then, if the Indian is a citizen he is one of us, and for his sake, as well as ours, he is entitled to be so educated and enlightened that he may share the privileges we enjoy, and help bear government burdens. As the original inhabitant of this country, he is by right, even more than foreign emigrants, entitled to the very best training in our schools, and other places, to make him a useful citizen. A few years ago, Mr. Edmunds, Chairman of the Judiciary Committee of the

United States Senate, said: "Let him quit being an Indian, pay taxes, and be ready to fight for the Government. No other ceremony is needed." Guided by our Declaration of Independence, and our Constitution, I think that instead of being members of a little tribe of ignorant dependent Indians, always to be at a disadvantage among us, they might become intelligent and useful citizens, having equal rights with us, and be allowed to go and come, live and prosper, among us the same as the black man, and the foreigner. The records show that where this has been tried it has been successful.

There is absolutely nothing the matter with the Indian except ignorance. Because of his ignorance we were enabled to take this country from him, we put all of our power over him, and we can easily prolong this power if we keep on denying him the necessary and proper education and training necessary to make a good and helpful citizen. In the popular belief the Indian is considered to be a savage. Brig. Gen. R. H. Pratt, U. S. A., whose judgment we can rely upon because of his experience as superintendent of the Carlisle Indian School, has shown that the word savage is a relative term, and comparing the red man with the white man, in times past, we are led to a kinder judgment of this child of the forest.

General Pratt says: "Go to the Colonial laws of our 'good old Quaker State,' to those of New Jersey, Virginia, and the Carolinas, and you will find that these governments by our enlightened and Christian forefathers not only sanctioned scalping, but paid to have it done in a lawful manner. For every Indian killed a price was paid, a large price for each man, less for a woman. The scale of prices for capture in our William Penn colony was $134. for a man, $50. for a woman, and $30. for a youth over ten years. How was the killing to be verified? The law said: 'bring in the scalps,' and they were delivered and paid for."

All our historians say that the Indian is very warlike and treacherous. This is not true. Is there any man, no matter what color, who would not fight to protect his family, home and property? To prove their desire to keep peace with us is the fact that there has never been wanting plenty to enlist with our

soldiers to suppress hostilities, even of their own tribes. They have proved as true and brave in meeting their obligations as any of our soldiers. Their record in fighting for the country as is the duty of a citizen, is therefore complete.

At a meeting in Mr. Wanamaker's store at Philadelphia, a report was given, by an Indian agent, on Non-reservation Education. A newspaper reported him as saying that the non-reservation educated Indians were the worst, because they have come East and learned the white man's vices; but later in his talk this Indian Agent said: "A good many Carlisle students teach in schools; I have three Indian Clerks in the Office, and two engineers at the Water Works, who are Indians. We use them whenever we can." Are we then to understand that the Carlisle students who are "teachers" in his schools, and "clerks" in his office are the "worst Indians" he has? Any vices he meets or imagines have all been carried to the Indians long ago by the white settlers.

Brig. Gen. R. H. Pratt calls the idea that "The only good Indian is a dead Indian," and the Indian educated in the East is the "worst Indian" as ideas which are untrue, vile, and wicked. By their circulation these ideas destroy confidence in the Indian. There are educated white men who are bad, as well as educated Indians who are bad, but that is no argument against education.

There is a sense in which the statement that the "non-reservation educated Indian is the worst" is true. Indians educated in the East who lived with white families during the period of their education, have received enough intelligent and independent American spirit to amount to something. When these Indians are sent back to their reservations they sometimes find that the officials at the reservation are using their positions corruptly, and being full of courage and knowledge, they attack these corrupt men and become the worst troublers of the officials.

One scheme to keep the Indian from going to non-reservation schools is in the Indian-Appropriation Bill, which reads: "Provided, that no Indian pupil under the age of fourteen years shall have transportation at the expense of the Government to any Indian School beyond the limits of the state or territory in

which the parents of such child reside, or the adjoining state or territory." This forces the Indian to stay with his tribes and go to the reservation school.

It is far better for the young Indian to mingle with white children than to constantly stay with the Indians and continue Indian habits. We try to educate the Indian for his tribe and for his state and we cannot do both. As a tribesman, he is useless to and a burden for the state, but as an intelligent and useful citizen of the United States, he is a protest against tribal conditions.

At the Hampton School, at Hampton, Virginia, which is a non-reservation school for negroes and Indians, out of 899 students, there are 47 Indian boys and 34 Indian girls. The question has often been asked: "Does it pay to support missions among the Chinese, negroes or mountaineers. We hear the blessed Master says: "Go disciple all nations," and, "Lo, I am with you alway, even unto the end of the world."

General Pratt says: "There are about 260,000 Indians in the United States. There are 2,700 counties. I would divide them up in the proportion of about nine Indians to a county, and find them homes and work among our people. That would solve the knotty problem in three years time and there would be no more "Indian-Questions.' "

Now, I say help the Indian to become a real citizen by giving him our language, our education, our industries, and our laws, together with all the freedom, privileges, and responsibilities which these give that he may live happily as one of us in our and his country. He needs no other privileges or qualities. Being enabled by these, he will gladly flee from his worthless past, rally from his despondency and his diseases, hold his own among us, and take great pride in the fact that he is now useful.

Why Study English?

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PART I.

WHY STUDY COMPOSITION?*

FOR the sake of convenience the study of English may be divided into two parts. The first of these has to do with the mechanics of expression: spelling, grammar and rhetoric; the second is concerned with the reading and appreciation of standard works by standard authors. Let us call one Composition and the other Literature. In reality, of course, there is no such definite distinction, for the best method of learning Composition is by studying Literature which, in turn, is only inspired Composition. But the artificial discrimination is expedient for our present purpose and therefore permissable.

The increasing emphasis of the modern age on correct oral and written expression is significant. Grammar is no more treated as a mere elementary school subject; rhetoric is no longer relegated to the high school course. Even the freshman classes in most of our leading colleges are including a review of at least the most important syntactical principles. This renewed activity within the walls of our institutions of learning is in response to a demand from the extra-mural world. The finger of criticism is pointed at our college graduates because they cannot spell intelligently or cannot use acceptable English. The leading business firms complain that the young men and women who come to them for positions, displaying diplomas as evidence of their ability, cannot express ordinary everyday ideas in clear emphatic language. This condition is even prevalent enough to have caught the attention of the student himself. "Why should I study

*Part II, "Why Study Literature?" by the same author, will appear in Education for April.—*The Editor*.

English? I can make myself understood," he pleads. "What more is needed?" He demands an explanation of this new attitude, and his inquiry challenges the attention of the educational world. At the same time that our teachers from the grades up are responding to the growing requirement of the outside world, it is their duty to answer the question of the student who desires and needs to be convinced that *English may not be taken for granted, like the air we breathe or the land on which we live*;[1] that there is much more expected of him than a casual acquaintance with his Mother Tongue. Too long he has both been led to the water and forced to drink without an attempt being made to arouse a proper thirst! If he is shown that a command of composition will not only improve Society's attitude toward him, but will also elevate his own attitude toward Society and toward himself, he may be inspired into more enthusiastic and spontaneous effort.

There is need to understand the cause for the existence of Composition before considering the reasons for studying it. All forms of language, it must be remembered, are the offspring of the centuries, but particularly is this true of Spoken Language. It was born long before its brother, Written Language, came into existence; therefore it is older than History itself. That is to say, the rules and regulations which we sometimes find so monotonous and dull in our daily classes were evolved gradually throughout the ages, not formulated by dusty grammarians who placed them in books to annoy us. By the customs, habits and characteristics of their speech, the people themselves unconsciously created these principles which have been accepted by intelligent Society and, through good usage, have been ingrained more deeply into our language than any man or group of men of any one age could possibly have caused them to be. The most important purpose of language has always been to express ideas and thoughts; if we lacked principles by which to standardize this expression, language would deteriorate and cease to be the beautiful thing it is, just as civilization itself would disappear

1 The Teaching of English in England—an official report of the British Government—page 19. Distributed by The Atlantic Monthly Press.

without laws to regulate it. These rules gathered together under the name of Composition are the unconscious gift of our ancestors to us, and it is our duty as good citizens of the world to accept and to obey them.

But there is more to this art or study which we are considering than meek observance of precept. Painful accuracy and mechanical perfection are not everything. By itself *"beautiful English does not constitute a meritorious discourse. The speaker or writer who uses language correctly and fluently but expresses no important thought is a failure."*[1] Composition is the practice of combining words so that interesting ideas are clearly expressed. In order to be clear one must be familiar with the rudiments of the art of writing; but he who is also interesting has something definite to say, something new to tell the world or at least some old conception clothed in new garb. In order to be interesting one must have kissed the Blarney Stone of Experience, and fortunately there are few of us who have not. It does not often happen that a man capable of expressing himself lacks subject matter, but too frequently, alas, in the graveyards of neglected opportunity we find potential geniuses who could have consoled us, taught us, inspired us, had they not lacked tongues to speak.

Besides being a means of expressing our experience, Composition is also evidence of culture, which is one of the best things that the world has to offer us. It might even be said that culture is the password which admits us to circles where intelligent life is at its highest level; that it is the key which opens for us the door of Opportunity,—at least as far as intellectual progress is concerned, for the cultured man is not only a gentleman versed in all the amenities of polite society . . . but he can express his own thought . . . readily, accurately and logically. *His reputation as a gentleman depends very largely upon his knowledge and use of English."*[2]

Here is to be found the expression of a vitally important principle, viz, that Society considers the language of men and women

1 The Value of English to the Technical Man—an address to the Technology Society of Kansas City, etc., by John Lyle Harrington, Consulting Engineer, Kansas City.

2 The Value of English to the Technical Man—J. L. Harrington.

an index of their breeding and refinement, a clue even to character itself. In fact, if we observe carefully, we shall begin to realize that language helps to place a person almost as much as manner or dress and that it is a more definite thing than either of these two. We shall also discover that it is as bad form to use ungrammatical or careless language as it is to eat with a knife, or wear a red tie with a dress suit. Social and intellectual progress is difficult for those who err in this respect, for society has come to consider what a person says and writes as of almost as much importance as what he does. It is possible in this day of progress, to find writing that *is* clear; men and women who *do* express themselves lucidly *can* be discovered and therefore the world is impatient with those who fall short in these requirements. Employers are unwilling to listen to the speaker or to pay attention to the writer who buries thoughts beneath a layer of involved construction and inexact words. No one knows, or for that matter, can ever know just how many young people are made or unmade by the letters they write, but it is well known that a large proportion of those applicants who fail, do so, not so much on account of poor qualifications as because they cannot state their accomplishments clearly and concisely. If it were possible to realize the vast influence which every written line of correspondence exercises, it might be easier to appreciate the importance of Composition.

Thus it is plain that good language, whether justly or not, is considered to be a proof of mental development[1] and vocabulary is regarded as a measure of intelligence. If you cannot carefully discriminate between weak and strong constructions, if your verbs and your nouns do not agree, if your pronouns lack clear reference, the world will consider it a sign of poor breeding or at least a sign of mental laziness and a lazy man is likely to be a shiftless man who has no place in civilization. The very existence of language presupposes a difference of mentality between the people using it.[2] By means of spoken or written language we communicate to one another our thoughts, desires, emotions. If it were possible to

1 See College Teaching by Paul Klapper, World Book Company.

2 See The Technique of Teaching, by S. E. Davis, Ph.D. Macmillan.

find two persons with exactly the same amount of intelligence and exactly the same amount of experience, there would be little need of their conversing with one another, indeed, it would be extremely difficult for them to do so at all. If this difference of mentality, then, is a concomitant of language, we should, by comparing the conversation or the correspondence of different people, be able to determine in general the difference in intellectual level between them. Nowhere is this so true as when two persons are talking with their thought on the matter rather than the manner of their speech. A bystander can determine easily the standard which each holds up to his thoughts. Mental carelessness and alertness are inevitably reflected in words. Therefore, accuracy and completeness of expression are justly considered a true sign of mentality, for no matter how careful a man may be in the concealment of his ignorance, it will show itself sooner or later in his speech or writing at some moment when he relaxes his restraint. "Obscurity and vagueness of expression," says Schopenhauer, "are at all times and everywhere a very bad sign. In ninety-nine cases out of one hundred they arise from vagueness of thought."

So correct composition is to be considered an index of mentality as well as a co-efficient of culture and an exponent of experience. That is to say, in less mathematical terms, composition is good evidence of the amount of intelligence a person possesses as well as being an inseparable attendant of refinement and a trustworthy method of recording and expressing one's reaction to life. But it is more, much more, than these.

Not only is composition proof that we possess intellectuality and experience, but it is also one of the most valuable means of attaining these ends. It has often been pointed out that there is no short-cut to perfection in English. One must work long and hard to accomplish this, but those who are beginning at an early age as they should, will not be deterred by such foreknowledge. The exacting labor, the patient practice, the realization of achievement, however small, will be rewards in themselves to every red-blooded man and woman, for "toilsome pursuit of knowledge seems to be the one thing in which man finds deep and enduring satisfaction.

Of all his appetites this is the deepest rooted."[1] It is pleasant, however, to know that something, still more gratifying awaits persistent and industrious effort. Let us see what this is.

There is no doubt but that *comprehension grows with power of expression* and this can be demonstrated in four ways. In the first place, if we strive earnestly to improve our writing and speaking, we shall at the same time unavoidably add to what we know—we shall build up our experience. For remember that, unless we are rare geniuses, in order to write well we must come into contact with great minds, or at least with minds that have something to offer which is new to us.[2] This in itself can not help but refresh us. There is an inspiration which comes only from contact with others, whether they be our living acquaintances or the authors of our books. It is impossible to drop an idea into the reservoir of one's mind without starting ripples of thought in all directions. Even in searching for a particular phrase or in striving to exemplify some rule, new things may be discovered, hidden gems of value may be chanced upon which go to increase our mental wealth.

In the second place, our search for clear language will help to clarify our thoughts themselves so that, at the same time we begin to write better we begin to think more deeply and more logically. Our conscious effort to make an idea clearer for someone else must at the same time of necessity make it clearer for us. This law applies over a wide area to many branches of thought and learning. All subjects, to which we direct our attention, will take on added color and interest and will lend themselves more readily to the complete grasp of our faculties in direct ratio to the control we gain over the intricacies and niceties of English, which, as the instrument of thought and the means of communication, will necessarily affect every other subject.[3] Often the reason for failure in solving some apparently difficult Mathematical problem lies in the confused relation of ideas; frequently it is difficult to understand History because of unfamiliar terms or involved constructions. With our growing control over English Composition these diffi-

1 College English, by Frank Aydelotte—Oxford University Press.
2 See English Composition in Theory and Practice—Canby and others. Macmillan.
3 The Teaching of English in England, p. 23.

culties and others will often vanish of themselves; it is indisputably true that, if we are to get everything out of the books that we read, the lectures we hear, the experiments we watch or perform, it is absolutely necessary to be on good speaking terms, nay, even familiar with "that indispensable handmaid" English Composition.

In the third place, a command of Composition will increase and build up self-confidence. Most of us have been conscious at some time or other of a sense of shame and discouragement when we have striven vainly to express some particularly pertinent idea. There is nothing so efficacious to destroy this embarrassment as the realization that we have at our command an instrument which will lend its flexible means to the dictate of our will. With our growing control over expression there will be born in us instead of a false self-consciousness, a sense of elation and security and we shall not need then to be reminded of the axiom that "*what a man cannot clearly state he does not perfectly know.*"[1]

In the fourth place, the study of composition will increase comprehension by developing a rare and invaluable quality called selection or discretion. The process of searching into the depths of language to discover accurate grammatical relationships or to determine fine distinctions and shades of meaning will teach us to see beneath the surface of other things, to judge the manifold parts of life not by their superficial exterior but by their real, internal, invisible value. Nothing is more needed and demanded of the young people of to-day than to be able to choose wisely between the false and the genuine, between the little and the great, between the temporary and the eternal; and here Composition is an invaluable teacher, for there is no doubt but that it develops taste and the sense for effects.[2] It demands a careful and a wise selection of the words that we write and speak, and a conservative choice of the literature that we read. It requires us to exercise care in our employment of expressions which are too dangerously colloquial or hackneyed. It warns us against neologisms which have no other merits than novelty to commend them. It creates in us a standard of taste which enables us to select our reading matter

1 See The Teaching of English in England.
2 The Technique of Teaching, by S. E. Davis.

according to basic principles of worth rather than because of the excitement afforded. It is said that our magazines are deteriorating; that there is springing up a mass of cheap and obscene periodicals and that even those journals which once were considered the most conservative and refined are beginning to show the results of this influence. If this be true, there is just one reason for it. The public must have what it craves. If cheap material is demanded, the magazines, from a business standpoint, must offer this. We ourselves set the standard of our reading and we have no one to blame but ourselves if it deteriorates. "Language is no better and no worse than the men who speak it and read it . . . it can be trusted to take care of itself if the men who use it take care of themselves."[1]

In conclusion, therefore, there are just three reasons why you and I should study composition and keep on studying it till we have attained a state of perfection where our thoughts no longer come out in such a haphazard manner that "they knock each other over the head"[2] It is our duty to uphold the honor of the inheritance which has been passed down to us in trust by our ancestors; it is our privilege to enjoy the advancement which it affords us; it is our opportunity to accept its assistance in the realization of our ambitions. The dignity of this heirloom which we call our Mother Tongue is recognized by the world. Not longer ago than 1919 the Northern Peace Congress at Stockholm voted English the best language for universal use, and the great World War has advanced its prestige immeasurably. We must not sully its clean, rich garments, for it is the Alma Mater of our race. This is particularly true in that it is not a stone figure or an intangible, evanescent creed but a real, living entity that seeks to help us in our climb toward the heights of achievement. If we will but wear the laurels which it offers to place upon our brows, if we will but accept its aid and clasp the hand it reaches us, we shall realize the value of this legacy which some of us have been too prone to neglect.

1 The Future of the English Tongue, by J. R. Lounsbury.
2 Sam Weller in Pickwick Papers.

(*Continued next Month*).

British Education Act of 1918

P. H. Pearson, Washington, D. C.

IN August 10, 1917, the Government appointed committee laid the first draft of the law before Parliament. Objections against it caused it to be returned to the committee. A new draft with only slight deviations from the first one was then prepared and submitted to Parliament on February 25, 1918. On July 17 of the same year the bill was passed, and on August 8 went into effect as the Education Act of 1918. The reforms inaugurated by the law may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. A new basis is provided for financing the entire school system.

2. The entire school system is reorganized in such a way that it is brought still more fully under the control of the local school authorities.

3. The obligatory period is extended so as to include kindergarten or nursery schools for children from 2 to 5 years and day continuation schools for adolescents between 14 and 18.

4. Measures are provided for the physical and social welfare of pupils.

Financial Basis.

Tuition fees of whatever kind are abolished. The former state-grants are substituted by one single appropriation computed on the basis of specified regional needs and circumstances, yet so apportioned that it does not fall below one-half of the local budget for the schools and for children's welfare, nor must it exceed the local budget by more than two-thirds, of its amount, provided, that exceptions may be made in districts heavily pressed by local taxes.

Organization.

The gradual expansion of the school system in England had made the demarcations between the respective authorities uncertain. The Education Act aims to define the authority vested in each controlling body. The law presupposes co-operation on the same lines as formerly under the law of 1902, and distinguishes between the minor local authorities and authorities with more comprehensive power.

All bodies and boards are to constitute single local authorities or consolidations of these. They are appointed by the communities; their chief function is to devise plans of instruction in conference with the parents and guardians of the pupils. The plan drafted must, however, be approved by the Central Board of Education. If the local proposal is not approved, the Central Board takes up the matter with the local authorities, and then, if no plan is agreed upon, the question is submitted to Parliament for final adjudication.

Obligatory Attendance.

The law formerly in effect made the communities the guardians of children's education from the 5th to the 14th year. The new law makes them responsible for their care and training from the 2nd to the 18th year. This extended time comprises three types of schools each adapted to a certain period of the child's life: Nursery Schools, Elementary Schools and Day Continuation Schools.

Nursery Schools.

The new law requires the local school authorities to establish "schools" for children between 2 and 5 years. These schools are calculated to provide such care, medical examination, treatment and training as are most favorable for the children's physical growth and development. Attendance at these institutions for the children depends altogether on the wishes of the parents.

Elementary Schools.

The elementary schools are obligatory for children between 5 and 14. Certain local conditions, such as a long distance to school, or other circumstances, may reduce the actual time of attendance required. Such arrangements are, however, to be sought as will put into full effect the law requiring attendance. To this end the communities should devise means to transport children between their homes and school and to furnish lunches for children at school.

Day Continuation Schools.

From the year of 1925 on, adolescents will be required to attend instruction till their 18th year. From 15 to 18 their attendance must comprise 320 hours a year distributed over 40 weeks. If any school district extends its elementary instruction till the age of 15 full time attendance during this period may be required; provided, however, that such attendance does not exempt the pupils from other continution instruction as required by the Act of 1918. During the first seven years after the law went into effect the local authorities may reduce the number of hours required to 280 a year. Among minor deviations in the application of the law is the exemption from obligatory attendance in case of pupils whose competence for university studies has been duly approved.

Enforcing Attendance.

To make the law effective fines from 5 shillings to one pound are imposed for unexcused non-attendance. If the absence is caused directly or indirectly by parents or employers these may be fined from 2 to 5 pounds. Details governing the instruction and discipline in these schools are fixed by a Code of Regulations published by the Government.

Child and Adolescent Welfare.

The British Education Act is founded on a new conception of the Government's duty to its children and young people. The nursery schools endeavor to foster the children's psychic and

physical health during their early years. But through welfare arrangements the law guards them also during the years that follow. Children and adolescents are cared for by means of physical examinations, medical treatment, vacation colonies, school trips. The Act is explicit in the paragraphs calculated to prevent the wrong use of children's labor power:

1. No child below 12 may be required to work.
2. No child above 12 may be required to work:
   a. More than two hours on Sundays and holidays.
   b. Not until after the close of school hours on school days.
   c. Under no circumstances between 8 p. m. and 6. a. m.

Vocational Directing.

The Education Act places on the local board the responsibility of helping young people in their choice of occupation; to this end information and help are to be given all pupils before completing the elementary schools.

General Feature of the Act.

British conservatism has avoided replacing the old schools by new types with new aims. The Act is restricted to the purpose of indicating certain new and practical departures and investing existing school authorities with power to carry them out. In its total scope and purpose the Education Act expresses the principle that education is not a function closed within itself; it is a function organic with the Nation's social economic and religious aims and traditions.

Athletics as an Aid to School Morale

T. C. Hart, President Palatine, Illinois,
Township High School.

A TRAVELING salesman got off the train at a small village in the Illinois Corn Belt last fall and as he walked up the street he noticed that every store and business house was closed and that there was practically no one on the streets. "Must be a funeral of some leading citizen or something of the kind going on," he thought to himself. As he walked into the village hotel he noticed that the only person in sight was the aged janitor who was badly crippled with rheumatism. "Well, where is everybody? Has the Mayor died, or the leading banker, or what on earth has struck this town? I suppose of course every one has gone to a funeral, that's the only thing that would empty the town like this," was his greeting to the old janitor.

"Funeral nothing," snorted the old gentleman in disgust, "they are all out to the football game. Our High School team is playing their old rivals from the next town and this whole burg has closed up and gone to the game. And I'd be there, too, if it wasn't for this danged rheumatism, it's too far to walk and too long to stand around," he added.

One of my fellow board members spent last Thanksgiving day in a small town in Iowa where his daughter was teaching school. He came back with this story and he swears that it's gospel truth. It seems that the High School football team from the town he was visiting was to play a nearby team on Saturday following Thanksgiving. Interest in the game was at fever heat and everyone seemed to be making plans to go to the game. One of the ministers of the town was asked to conduct a funeral on Saturday and asked to be excused because his boy was going to play in the football game and he wanted to be there to see the game. He suggested that possibly a young preacher of one of

the other churches might be secured to conduct the funeral. But this preacher also declined as he had already promised to officiate as referee at that same football game. The funeral was postponed until Monday when both ministers could take part in the services.

This last is no doubt an exceptional case. The first case is far from being extreme, it is in fact quite common, and such cases as the first one are becoming yearly more numerous. These illustrations serve to show to what an extent high school athletics have taken hold of the people of many communities.

But there is another and more important function that properly conducted high school athletics are performing and that is the increasing of the morale of the high school pupils.

There are a great many boards of education and other school officials who are not making the use that could be made of school athletics as a builder of school spirit and enthusiasm. One day on a railroad train I overheard two high school boys from neighboring towns talking.

"They don't let us play real foot ball at ————,"he was telling his companion. "We have to play soccer football only, the other kind is too rough."

"Rough? Say, you fellows must be a lot of softies, we play real football in our town, we're a bunch of regular he-men down there. True we get beat a lot because we're a green team, but boy, you ought to see the 'pep' the game is putting into that little old school of ours," was the come-back of the second lad.

And the second boy was right. I happen to know both schools and the smaller one where they play "real football" has got about twice the amount of school spirit which the larger school has where they don't allow "real football."

Properly conducted, high school athletics can do a great deal for any school. I have seen school boards which were opposed to spending the necessary amount of money to properly equip their athletic teams and I have seen those teams go into competition with well equipped teams and be badly beaten, not so much because of inferior ability but simply because they were beaten

before they ever took the field. They knew their Board didn't believe in athletics, that every cent spent on their equipment was begrudged them; they knew they were far inferior in equipment to their opponents; their spirit was far below that of their opponents, and the result was that they took the field and played in an apologetic sort of manner that was no match for the dash and enthusiasm shown by the well equipped team whose school officials were with them and whose school spirit was of the best.

Where school athletics are carefully conducted there are certain requirements in studies which have to be met before the athletes can represent their school. If a boy is a good athlete he has got to keep up a certain grade in his studies in order to be able to compete in athletics. The stimulant of wanting to play on the school teams is often the necessary incentive to better scholastic work on the part of many boys who otherwise would be rather indifferent in their studies.

During the past basket ball season our superintendent and coach read off the list of eligible players each afternoon and only those players on the eligible list were allowed to take part in the daily team practice.

"It's the greatest stimulant for school work I ever saw," remarked the superintendent. "The boys have lots of fun at practice and they are working like beavers at their school work so as not to have to miss any practice or games. If any of the stars get behind, the rest of the squad ride them so hard that they have to get busy to keep peace in the camp."

Right there is one of the advantages of athletic competition. It encourages the boys to keep encouraging each other. They all want to see all the rest in the game and knowing that all have to meet a certain grade in studies it generates team work in school work as well as on the athletic field.

Another thing,—Athletic competition builds for manhood. It teaches the sacrifice of self for the good of the team. It puts poise and judgment into the young fellows and the more poise and judgment the pupils can be given the better for the welfare and morale of the school.

I have heard the argument advanced that the trouble with athletic competition is that only a few can make the various teams and that the great mass of students therefore derive no direct benefit from athletic competition. In answer to that I think that the benefit in school loyalty which is generated and built up through loyalty to the schools' athletic teams can be counted as being a direct benefit to the entire school and a benefit directly traceable to athletics. There is no one thing that builds up and holds school loyalty on a high plane better than does the interest and loyalty to the school's athletic teams. In a large school only a small percentage of the pupils may make the team but every pupil and the school as an institution is benefited by the spirit which those teams call forth. In a small school oftentimes it is hard to get enough material for a successful team, but the improvement in school spirit through athletics is just as great in a small school as in a large one, and oftentimes much greater when a small school puts out a team that chances to be an exception and which goes out and defeats some of the larger schools.

Furthermore, the influence of athletics in building up school spirit within the school is not by any means the only way in which athletics can and does work for the good of a school. One of the hardest and greatest problems which school officials are called upon to face is public apathy and indifference as to the schools and their needs. Anything which will help to encourage the public to take an interest in school affairs is certainly going to do the schools a great deal of good.

Right here is where school athletics play an important part. Public interest is created in the athletic teams of a school. Through those athletic teams the interest is attracted to the schools themselves. Public interest which at first takes notice of the athletic teams only, is later intensified and at least a part of that interest is bestowed upon the school which the teams represent. Athletic competition in that way acts as a sort of general drawing card for the school. Through acquaintance with its athletic teams the public is gradually drawn into acquaintance with the school itself and becomes familiar with the insti-

tution, its positon in the community and its hopes, its aims and its needs. Such an acquaintance between school and public is bound to work for the best interests of the school. From personal observations I do not believe that there is any one thing which can bring a school in closer touch with the public which it serves than the athletic teams of the institution.

Not only does athletic competition by school teams increase the spirit and morale of the school but it increases the spirit and morale of the community as well. School competition is clean competition. School sports are regulated sports and are planned to bring out the spirit of fair play and clean sportsmanship as well as the spirit of "fight to win." Such clean sports are a benefit to any community, they put sport on a higher plane and in that way teach good sportsmanship and fair play to the entire community and not only to the pupils of the school.

The interest which school sports attract in a community brings home to that community the benefits of healthful exercise and clean sports. The community becomes alive to the physical as well as the mental needs of its children and this live interest on the part of an entire community is one of the chief causes why so many communities are seeing to it that adequate space is being provided in new schools and old for the proper physical eduation of the children.

School athletics need not mean only competition by a small number of the pupils. Class competition and general physical training can be made to include an entire school. And not only are high schools finding that Athletic competition is a good thing for their institutions, but grade schools as well are coming to recognize the benefits in school spirit and morale which are to be had from Athletics.

From personal experience and observation I do not believe that there is any department in a school which gives as large returns for the amount of money expended as does the athletic department. The success of any business institution depends very largely upon the spirit and morale of the workmen who are employed by the institution. So, too, the success of any school depends

very largely upon the spirit and morale of the pupils in that school.

Anything which will help to improve the morale of a school helps to further that school's chances to be a successful school which can be a real benefit to the community which it serves. There is nothing, to my mind, that stimulates greater interest in school spirit than school athletics. They not only increase the school spirit, they increase the interest in school work for in a properly conducted school the good athlete has also to be a good student. In this way athletics are a help to scholarship as well as to school spirit.

And not alone are school athletics a help to school morale but they are a help to the morale of the entire community. Every school needs greater interest in its work on the part of its public. School athletics go a long way toward bringing about this increased public interest in the school.

I have seen school boards that violently opposed any appropriations for athletic purposes. I have heard them denounce athletics as "too much play stuff," heard them say that the children could get plenty of exercise without the school spending the taxpayers' money for a lot of athletic equipment. And I have seen these same Boards after they had seen what athletic interest did for the school and the community, pass large bills for athletic equipment without a dissenting vote. Too many school boards I believe still have the wrong idea about athletics when they consider money spent for athletic equipment as thrown away.

Properly conducted school athletics can do as much for school morale, community morale, community understanding and the upbuilding of healthful, square dealing citizens as any one thing. Athletics can play a prominent part in school administration.

An Initial Inventory of the Mental Capacities of Primary Children

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NO successful business man today would think of starting the New Year without taking an inventory of the goods he sells. With most concerns, the annual inventory comes right after the rush of the holidays. It is then that the progressive merchant sums up the business for the past year and calculates to the last copper his profits and his losses. At the same time, he is able to place all of his wares in one of two classes, that which is readily salable and that which, because it is shopworn or out-of-date or for which there is no demand, must be disposed of at a loss. He cannot afford to keep stock on his shelves from year to year. Such a practice serves inevitably to eat up the profits. He must have "a quick turnover" so that he may be able to display and sell fresh goods at all times.

If such a practice, from the standpoint of economy and business efficiency, is considered advisable in the handling of chewing gum, garden hose, galvanized tubs, and the other varieties of goods known to all of us, how much more necessary is such an inventory in our public school systems where we deal with the seed of our nation, our own boys and girls, the leaders and the followers of tomorrow?

The report comes from Northwestern University that intelligence tests were given to over 1000 freshmen this fall, and that, as a result of these tests, students were grouped according to their abilities and given work accordingly. This has been done in many other colleges and universities and the movement seems to be a growing one.

Now it doesn't take a prophet or a person of unusual ability to visit a certain automobile plant in this country, where Baby Lincolns are turned out faster than the ordinary housewife can

make flap-jacks, to know that a real genius is at the head. That same observer can watch the multiplicity and complexity of traffic on one of our great trunk railroad lines and he comes to the same conclusion. Such wonders are the creation of genius.

A glimpse of life from a different angle is likewise illuminating. A man with the brain of a boy plays the same tune day after day on his mouth-organ and seems to enjoy it. Down the road, with an easy gait, comes an old rickety cart drawn by a drowsy mule. And just in the shadow of the beast, and drowsier still, is a man with not enough ambition to keep a frog from drowning. About the only difference between him and a sign in a cemetery is in the color. Farther down, a man is seen with a sack hung from his shoulder. He carries a small spear and, as he walks, catches pieces of paper and cigar butts on the point of this spear and quickly deposits them in the sack. He has done this, we are told, for years and will probably never rise above the cigar spearing stage.

And so you could run down the whole gamut from the genius to the imbecile. You wouldn't expect a Henry Ford to be the one with the mouth-organ, nor could you picture an Edison behind a mule, or a Steinmetz with a sack and a spear. A moron would be quite out of place as a railroad magnate, whereas a mule-driver would be of little assistance to a Marconi.

It is easy for us to distinguish between the feeble minded, the average man, and the intellectual giant after each has reached maturity. They seem to take their places in life quite naturally, and we come to look upon people in different walks of life as having mentality commensurate with the task they perform. But picture, if you can, these same individuals, at an earlier stage in life, enrolling as pupils in the kindergarten or first grade. In height and weight and general appearance, there is not much difference. But in every large group of individuals is the budding genius to be found. A Mayo and a Stradivarius take their places in the line. A McKinley must run through his ABC's like the rest of the pupils. The embryo street cleaner on the scales is equal to any of his compeers. The tape measure passes over the body of a coming Chief Justice of the Supreme Court and over that of an idiot and pronounces the same Judgment. The lung

capacity of a potential criminal and a second Gladstone may be exactly the same. Rich and poor, great and small, they all swarm to the public school and start life apparently at the same point.

With conditions such as these to face, what is to be the attitude of the modern teacher toward these beginners? Is she to proceed blindly, irrespective of the goal toward which each pupil is headed, or would it not be a point of wisdom to "take stock" of the goods at hand, to separate the dead stock from the fast-moving stock, in order that there may be a quick turnover, and in order that strict business procedure may be adhered to. If chewing gum and tubs are worth this special consideration, how much more do living human beings deserve the attention of an educator skilled in the latest methods of measuring minds? Why wait until most of them have dropped out of schol before you make use of a test of intelligence? Is this not the ideal point of attack, when a roll call shows all of them to be present? Could not many of our problems of retardation and elimination in the grades later on take on a milder aspect if the teacher at the kindergarten stage would do her duty and separate the sheep from the goats?

If you have driven a car to any extent, you have already had this disgusting experience. You just had to reach a certain place at a certain time and were speeding along with everything in your favor when all at once a great lumbering truck loomed up just ahead of you, completely blocking the road. You honked your horn, you used improper English, until finally, after what seemed hours to you, the truck slowly pulled to the side and you straddled the ditch in getting by.

A couple weeks ago, we had a battle on the gridiron with a neighboring foot-ball team. About thirty of our most enthusiastic supporters made the trip in a monstrous truck. In view of the weather conditions and the roughness of the road, you just had to admire them for their grit. But it was a slow, tedious journey and the drivers and occupants of the other cars were snugly nestled in their blankets that night, hours before the truck returned. Besides, several culverts and bridges knew only too well that the truck had passed that day. All of which goes to show that in planning any trip, be it to a football game or one from the kinder-

garten to high school or college graduation, it is highly important that you have the matter of transportation well in hand. For the comfort and general welfare of those who ride, the fewer trucks you have the better off you are apt to be.

We have all types in our school system, the slow lumbering trucks and the high-powered cars. And we are committing the offence daily of giving the trucks the right of way and holding the track winners behind.

To wait until the boys and girls are at college is pure folly. The proper place to use the mental yard-stick is at the kindergarten stage. If properly applied at that time and if the findings are utilized as they should be, many of the most serious collisions and traffic tie-ups along the way will be avoided. The trucks can then run along at their own gait, while other avenues will be completely closed to them.

The genius will be warmed up and on the second lap long before the laggard is started. The right kind of traffic regulations can easily be applied to the school and the results are sure to be enlightening. It is the surest and only business-like way of getting your load to its destination "on time," and at a minimum cost.

The mental yard-stick referred to is yet in the making. Several excellent specimens have come to the front just recently. The tests gotten out by Binet a few years ago have furnished the real foundation stones upon which other scientists have built. Dr. Kuhlman has devoted considerable time to this study and has added much to the field of knowledge. But the greatest accomplishment to date seems to be the Stanford revision of the Binet-Simon tests, a series of graded tests which are admirably adapted to the needs of the school and which furnish the teacher with the instrument she has long needed. It is based on facts and not mere notions. It is psychologically sound and, even though it may have its imperfections, it serves as a point of departure to direct the way for future developments. In the hands of one who is skilled in its use, it can be made to perform a real service. Pupils with a mental age of 3 years can be accurately tested and each successive mental age up to that of the superior adult—one having a mental

age of 18 years—finds a series of tests to represent that particular stage of mental development.

The materials needed can be gotten at a very reasonable cost. Terman has written the book, "The Measurement of Intelligence," to accompany the tests and to give the detailed information needed. These, as well as the tests and all materials are easily obtained from the Houghton Mifflin Company.

The one fundamental objection to the Stanford test is that it takes too much time to examine each pupil individually. Approximately 45 minutes is needed to test each child accurately and this is a weighty consideration when one thinks of the large number of pupils usually found in a single room in the primary grades.

The city of Detroit not long ago confronted the same difficulty. In order to correct, to some extent at least, the evils existing under the present plan of classification and promotion of pupils in the elementary grades, Superintendent Cody approved a plan during the winter of 1919-1920 for the classification by tests of intelligence of all pupils entering the first grade.

Because of the large number of pupils to be examined and the necessity for speed, if the results were to be available soon after the beginning of the semester, when they would be of the greatest value, and because of the expense connected with the giving of an individual intelligence examination, it was decided to devise a group intelligence test for this purpose. The Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test, devised by the staff of the Psychological Clinic to classify tentatively, for purposes of instruction, pupils entering the first grade, requires no knowledge of written English, and correlates .69 with the Stanford-Binet based on 100 unselected cases.

The actual examining was done by the teachers of classes for subnormal pupils, assisted by the staff of the Psychological Clinic. These special teachers, who had previously been trained to give the Stanford-Binet, were specifically instructed in the method of giving the Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test.

During the first four days of school in September, more than 10,000 pupils in the B-1 were given this intelligence examination. Dr. Chas. S. Berry, Director of the Psychological Clinic of

Detroit, summarizes the results of this most unique testing program in the Journal of Educational Research. The teachers and the principals of the different city schools lined themselves up overwhelmingly in favor of the new plan. When a city of nearly a million people places its stamp of approval on such a project, we must admit that the experimental stage in mental testing has been passed.

"Trial and error" in education has seen its best day. We can no longer afford to keep the chaff and the wheat in the same sack and trust to chance to right matters. Justice demands that we give every boy and every girl a "square deal." We have long made use of that high sounding phrase "equality of opportunity." It is high time that we came down to Mother Earth and began this most stupendous task in the right way. The proper place to begin anew is at the beginning. The kindergarten-primary age opens up for the modern teacher untold possibilities. Will we make use of the great opportunity which is ours? Why wait till the high noon or the sunset of life before boys and girls are started in the right direction? That teacher is wise indeed who opens wide the windows of youth to the golden promises of Dawn.

American Notes—Editorial

A select company of professional men who are interested in Classical studies and their continued inclusion in the curricula of American schools and colleges, gathered recently at the Harvard Club, in Boston, to welcome to "The Athens of America" a distinguished scholar and Classicist, Sir Frederic George Kenyon,—since 1909 the Director and chief Librarian of the British Museum. One of the Boston papers speaks of him as "the custodian of one of the great depositories of the world's culture," and tells us that he has been honored by many great Universities and learned societies of England and the Continent, who have conferred upon him their most distinguished honors, especially in recognition of his work on the Egyptian papyri and biblical manuscripts. He has the reputation abroad, of being one of the foremost advocates of the value of a classical education. He has come to America as the guest of the American Classical League, and will speak at dinners and luncheons in leading cities here and in Canada. Kenyon College, in Ohio, was founded by a member of his family a hundred years ago.

Sir Frederic's address at the Harvard Club was given under the auspices of the American Classical League. Latin and Greek, he said, are now advocated in England, not as something that is ancient and outgrown, and that will perish unless they are forced upon the boys and girls of today, but rather are presented as the source and expression of much of the very best that the human race has done and said, and therefore as the fountain and source of the most enduring and true culture. He said that the advocates of the Classics did not insist that everybody should be forced to take them,—but that neither should the schools so legislate them off the curriculum that those who desire to take them should be forced not to do so. Their greatest value is not in grammar or word-store; it is in the long sifted presentation of human experience and interests, in the defeats and triumphs of men and women, which are just as significant and interesting now as then because they reflect common experiences that are essentially the same, yesterday, today and forever.

We were privileged to hear this distinguished scholar's inspiring address, and we are sure that his presence in our country and his addresses at great centers of learning and culture will awaken new thought and fresh interest in the important subject of classical education,—which has been in some quarters relegated to the rear, in the interests of the so-called "practical" subjects. We cannot accept the

implications of this term. Nothing is more practical than that which makes us see clearly and think accurately. Latin and Greek enter fundamentally into the English language. Something like two-thirds of the words which we habitually use are derived from these languages; and if we know these derivations they present pictures to the mind that are definite, clean-cut, and that make for exactness, beauty and force in speech. Let the Classics ever be available for those who would be efficient and exact in thought, word and deed; this is the conclusion of the whole matter, and we are privileged in having among us so learned an advocate as Sir Frederic George Kenyon.

A famous definition of a College pictures it as "a log, with a young man at one end and President Mark Hopkins at the other." This is vivid and suggestive and would apply as well to almost any stage of the educational process. The essentials of a school or college are a *teacher,* surcharged with knowledge and with a disposition to impart the same; and a *pupil* who is ready to sit at the feet of such teacher and pay attention,—with a desire and will to learn. Fine buildings, elaborate equipment, big endowment, historical traditions, a world-disseminated body of alumni or alumnae make a given institution famous. But just a log, with a great teacher at one end and a receptive student at the other, is "short" for College; or for High School, or any other grade of educational institution. With these conditions real learning flourishes and a true education can be obtained.

The modern College has been growing, however, since some of us graduated. It is now a vastly complex institution. In many cases the old College has become a University, with numerous departments, each of them far larger than the whole College of our day. Then we knew everybody in college and every Professor called each student by name and could tell one something about his "forbears." But now a given Professor knows, perhaps, only the fellows in his own Division or subject; and if they know his subject well it doesn't matter much whether *he* knows *them,* or not. Examinations are chiefly written ones; and if some students do not "pass" they are dropped,— go their way and are forgotten. Nobody weeps (unless it is the hapless student). He disappears, goes to another college, perhaps, or into business, or to Europe, and may or may not be ever again heard from.

Which is better,—the old ideal or the new? Which kind of college would you prefer for yourself, or for your son or your daughter? Perhaps we cannot make,—or should not make—such a comparison. Both types are legitimate,—and needed. They are not necessarily antagonistic or competitive. They are, rather, supplementary and

co-operative. In the larger Universities of today special effort should be made, however, to secure something of the personal touch, more of the old "log" relation between students and officials. We hope and believe that this will be the tendency as we advance along the rapidly developing course of modern higher education.

All true education, be it old or new, should make its possessor stand four-square to the world; for it should and will consist of and secure to its possessor the following great particulars:

1. The acquisition of knowledge; 2. the establishment of self-control; 3. the habit of initiative; 4. the supreme virtue of love for our fellow men.

The first makes us dynamic ("knowledge is power"). The second gives us poise and endurance. The third makes us progressive. The fourth, beneficent. These are the ripe fruits of all true education. They are the ear-marks of the gentleman (or lady) and the scholar.

One hundred thousand public school children of Pennsylvania were given honor attendance certificates last year by the Department of Public Institution in recognition of their being neither absent from nor tardy at school during the entire year. It is the first time in the history of the State that awards of this kind have been made. The certificates are signed by State Superintendent, Dr. Thomas E. Finegan, contain the seal of the Department of Public Instruction and represent the State's reward to the children for their faithfulness and devotion to school duties during the year 1921-22. The real significance of this achievement can be comprehended only when it is realized that an army of children—one hundred thousand—practiced for an entire year the virtues of regularity, punctuality, reverence for and obedience to the law—and best of all—showed substantial appreciation for the educational heritage the state is providing for them. Of far greater importance is the promise it gives of the future lives of these young people who have shown such striking capacity for the formation and practice of the best habits. Their example is sure to exert a great influence on other school children throughout the State and on the citizenry in general. Parents will get much satisfaction from this wonderful accomplishment. Teachers and school authorities can, with good grace, share this satisfaction for theirs is a proud record. It is a supreme contribution to better citizenship and tangible evidence that the schools last year made a distinct advance in the production of better citizens.

The school children of Braddock, Pa., are soon to compete in an essay writing contest which might profitably be imitated in many industrial communities throughout the country. The officials of the local steel plant, the Edgar Thomson Works, have offered cash prizes for the best essays on safety and accident prevention submitted by the children in connection with a campaign which the plant is making to extend instruction in safety to the homes and families of employees. Three different classifications of children have been made for the contest, including primary, more advanced, and High School divisions, with a choice of subjects adapted to the development of the child of each grade. The essay contest is in line with a series of lectures on safety instruction being given in the local Library auditorium for employees and their wives. The steel plant officials carried the safety campaign to the town and schools after they had so systematized and developed the accident prevention work within the steel works that they were awarded the Carnegie Steel Company's 1922 safety trophy for accident prevention and succeeded in reducing their accident rate to the lowest known figure for any plant of the kind in the world, viz: 7.8 lost time accidents per thousand employees annually. This figure compares with the Federal Government survey figure for 155 steel plants in the United States, which shows an average of 240 lost time accidents per thousand employees annually. The steel plant officials believe that if this enormous reduction can be made in the accident rate in so dangerous a place as a huge steel plant, a similar campaign of publicity and education among the school children and families of employees should result in an equally remarkable reduction of accidents in the streets and homes.

The American School Citizenship League World Essay Contest for 1922-1923 is open to Students of all Countries. Two sets of prizes, to be known as the Seabury Prizes, are offered for the best essays on one of the following subjects: Open to Students in Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges: "A World Educational Association to Promote International Good Will." Open to Seniors in Secondary Schools: "The Achievements of Civilization and How to Organize Them for World Comity."

Three prizes of seventy-five, fifty, and twenty-five dollars, will be given for the three best essays in each set. The Contest closes June 1, 1923. Each essay must be accompanied by a topical outline and a bibliography with brief notes on each book. Essays must not exceed 5,000 words (a length of 3,000 words is suggested as desirable), and must be written, preferably in typewriting, on one side only of paper,

8½ x 11 inches, with a margin of at least 1¼ inches. Manuscripts not easily legible will not be considered. The name of the writer must not appear on the essay, which should be accompanied by a letter giving the writer's name, school, and home address, and sent to Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, Secretary, American School Citizenship League, 405 Marlborough Street, Boston 17, Mass., not later than June 1, 1923. Essays should be mailed flat (not rolled).

Information concerning literature on the essay subjects may be obtained from the Secretary of the League. During the past few years, many teachers in the United States have introduced the contest as a part of the regular school work, and have sent to the League the best essay in the school. It is suggested that all schools adopt this plan.

The recent election of Dr. Thomas Stockham Baker to the Presidency of Carnegie Institute of Technology at Pittsburgh calls to mind the remarkable growth of this college since its establishment twenty years ago. Founded in 1903, by Andrew Carnegie, as an industrial school for young men of small means, it has since become one of the largest technological institutions in the world, rated at the highest standard. Its enrollment this year is about 4,200 students, representing 26 foreign countries and 41 states, in addition to Alaska and the District of Columbia. The faculty numbers nearly 400. Primarily it is an engineering college, but the wide range of its courses touches nearly every industry and the field of art. Its College of Fine Arts has a reputation from coast to coast for its work in arts, music and drama, and its Women's College is increasing in student enrollment yearly. In the conduct of the engineering and the industrial courses, the institution has an unusual degree of support and co-operation from the industries in the Pittsburgh district. A great amount of research work is carried on at the college and financed by various industrial enterprises.

Book Reviews

THE PHILOSOPHY OF CITIZENSHIP. An Introduction to Civics for Adults. By E. M. White, Lecturer in Civics, London County Council. The Macmillan Company.

Starting with the broad definition that "Civics is the subject that deals with everything appertaining to citizenship, past, present and future, local, national and human," the author shows that the study of Civics and a qualification for citizenship require a definite, wide, inspiring, catholic education. A broad culture is to be had not from books only, but by knowledge of what is actually transpiring in the daily life of the people of the world. This is a much broader basis than a knowledge of what has been written down in books can ever afford us. While written for another country than our own, the study of this volume will be exceedingly helpful to any teacher or student of civics, wherever he may reside.

THE COMPLETE PRIMER. By Eva A. Smedley and Martha C. Olsen. Illustrated by Dorothy Dulin. Hall & McCreary, publishers.

A very prettily arranged and illustrated first book in its subject. The subject-matter and the pictures will make study a delight to the young learner. The publishers have co-operated remarkably well with the authors and illustrator in making the book attractive.

TOPICAL OUTLINES OF GEOGRAPHY. By H. W. Fairbanks, Ph.D. Book I, North and South America; Book II, Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia, Islands of the Pacific. P. Blakiston's Son & Company.

In these books the subject has been developed according to the Project method. They are Outlines of a series of Geographies which are published by the same company. The facts as given are not so much to be memorized as to be used rather as the materials necessary to a clear understanding of the interrelations of the people of each particular country, and their environment. The outlines of North and South America approach the same from the historical side. The development of the United States is shown to have been due to the energy of its people, the advantages of its situation, and the natural resources which it posseses. The pupil is made to see how these things account for the giant power of the new world. Teachers will find in these books abundant material for developing the project work of their pupils in geography.

HOW TO SPEAK. Exercises in Voice Culture and Articulation, with illustrative poems. By Adelaide Patterson, Professor of Public Speaking in the Rhode Island College of Education. Little, Brown and Company.

What a boon it would be to the people of the world if those who, in various capacities, whether in public or private, make use of speech as a medium of information or instruction and inspiration, would speak clearly and plainly! Who has not frequently gone away from a lecture or preaching service, saying (or, perhaps, just silently feeling), "I have no doubt that the speaker knew his subject thoroughly, but I was not able to hear a word that he said." Or, again, we may hear every word, but the sentences are so involved and the language so out of the common, that we wholly miss the impression that we should have received and carried away in the form of deep conviction of mind and heart. This little book will give any speaker real help in cultivating the habit of clear and effective speaking. This gift is useful in business, in domestic life, in social circles, everywhere. The book is the outgrowth of the instruction given in the technical courses at the Emerson College of Oratory in Boston.

THE DALTON LABORATORY PLAN. By Evelyn Dewey. E. P. Dutton & Company. Price $2.00.

Thoughtful teachers and school heads will find this book exceedingly suggestive and much of its spirit and method could profitably be introduced into any school,—without overturning old traditionary ideals. There are many people who feel that there are serious shortcomings in the established methods of the schools. Reforms must be made through experimentation. This book describes some bold departures from established custom. They have been carefully planned and courageously carried out. We can find much good in them and in the results achieved. In a word, as stated on the "jacket," the Dalton Laboratory Plan "abolishes class-rooms, with their bells, arbitrary recitation periods, and endless lectures; the routine of daily assignments; the lock-step rule of teacher-pupil relation." And it substitutes "subject laboratories, contract work, and a system under which pupils experiment while teachers observe."

ELEMENTARY ANALYSIS. By C. M. Jessop, M.A. Cambridge, at the University Press. The Macmillan Company.

A compact, well presented plane geometry, developing in the second part the rudiments of the theory of the calculus. Intended for the use of students in their first college year.

SOCIETY AND ITS PROBLEMS. An Introduction to the Principles of Sociology. By Grove Samuel Dow. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. Price $2.75 net.

An excellent text book for college classes, this book is also adapted to the needs of the private, individual reader and student of social conditions. It discusses in an understandable way the great social divisions of humanity,—the family, the state, the church, the school. Careful attention is given to poverty and its treatment, to crime and its cure, to immorality, to the defectives. The general atmosphere of these discussions is optimistic. It is a sensible, clear, readable and convincing volume.

THE POETIC MIND. By Frederick Clarke Prescott (Cornell University). The Macmillan Company.

Professor Prescott has made a very full, interesting and able study of a subject of wide human interest, in this volume. First and last, consciously or unconsciously, practically every human being is a poet in thought and feeling, if not in expression. This universal poetic impulse is here presented in all its phases, subtle, crude, artistic. Its rise in the realm of emotion, its varied forms of conscious or unconscious expression, the record of it in literature, history, action, all these phases of the subject are set forth with the skill of a master workman. No library, public or private, will be complete without a copy of this thoroughgoing and masterful analysis of a subtle, universal human experience.

NUTRITION AND GROWTH IN CHILDREN. By William R. P. Emerson, A.B., M.D. Illustrated. D. Appleton and Company.

Undernourished children are a common discovery in the experience of physicians and teachers. Doubtless there are thousands of them that are not discovered. Educators have brought the subject forward and of late it has become one of wider interest and profound study,—with results of deep importance to the children, their parents, the schools, and to society. This book is one of the most comprehensive studies along this line that has been made available to the public. Part I is on "The Diagnosis of Malnutrition." Part II presents a "Nutrition Program for the Community." A careful evaluation of School Lunches is contained in Part II. There are Appendices on Tables of Weights, Forms of Records, Lists of Publications on the subject, etc. This book should be included in the library of every school and college, and should be read widely by parents as well as by teachers and school officials.

A HISTORY OF CALIFORNIA. The Spanish Period. By Charles E. Chapman, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company.

A worthy addition to American historical information, and incentive to national pride and progress. The book is intended to interest the public, and it avoids technical and professional subtleties. Many interesting incidents of the early Spanish life and adventure in California are related. The author worked for thirteen years in investigations of thousands of previously unknown manuscripts relating to Spanish California, and his book will be accepted as a high authority on the early civilization of this extensive, highly favored and delightful portion of the United States.

EVERYDAY HEALTH SERIES. Books One and Two (two separate volumes). Book One, Building Health Habits; Book Two, Keeping the Body in Health.

For school study and for home instruction these volumes are unexcelled. They are written by M. V. O'Shea, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin; and J. H. Kellogg, Superintendent of the Battle Creek Sanitarium. Both volumes are fully illustrated. The Macmillan Company, publishers.

THE OPEN ROAD TO MIND TRAINING. By Esmé Wingfield-Stratford. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. Price $1.75 net.

The uninitiated would hardly believe the wonderful results that may follow a persistent effort to develop one's own powers under guidance of an expert. Most of us are either indifferent or careless in our mental habits. We might be far more efficient if we would look into the subject and make an effort to improve ourselves. We could accomplish much alone. We could do much better under instruction. If it is impossible to obtain an expert teacher, try this book. It will certainly help you wonderfully.

ASSETS OF THE IDEAL CITY. By Charles M. Fassett. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. Price $1.50 net.

This book presents facts and ideals that should be carefully studied by every voter in every town and city in the land. Light is shed upon the important problems of betterment and beautifying our places of business and residence; streets, water supply, lighting problems, sewage, telephones, garbage disposal, transportation, education, industries, are some of the subjects discussed. Everyone should be interested and enlightened on civic betterment problems. This volume will do a world of good if thoughtfully read.

HANDBOOK OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT. By Charles M. Fassett. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. Price $1.50 net.

This is another comprehensive practical manual by the same author as the book just mentioned. Mr. Fassett was formerly Mayor of Spokane, and is connected with the University of Kansas. He is making his wide experience of use to officials of other cities and towns through these valuable manuals.

THE TEACHING OF GENERAL SCIENCE. By W. L. Eikenberry. The University of Chicago Press. Price $2.00.

This book criticises the present status of science teaching in the United States. It is written to promote an awakening to the fact that we are behind some other nations in respect to this important matter. The volume is intended for the use of teachers and students and for the general public. It is a plea for, and presents a plan of, a better organization and practice in science teaching in schools and colleges.

THE RURAL COMMUNITY. By Llewellyn MacGarr, M. A. The Macmillan Company.

A fine study of rural problems, including all features of country life. The chapters on The District School and on Rural Secondary Schools, are especially suggestive.

ELEMENTARY INDUSTRIAL ARTS. By Leon Loyal Winslow. Illustrations by Harry W. Jacobs. The Macmillan Company.

This attractive book provides instruction for boys and girls in the upper elementary grades. Every educated person should become familiar with at least the rudiments of such subjects as bookmaking, papermaking, brick and tile work, basketry and boxmaking, pottery, cement, copper, iron and steel, textiles, soap, glass, woodworking, etc. These are all clearly described in this volume, with abundant illustrations.

PROBLEMS IN AMERICAN DEMOCRACY. By Thames Ross Williamson, Assistant Professor of Economics and Sociology in Smith College. D. C. Heath and Co., publishers.

A textbook which will serve to prepare the pupil to become an intelligent citizen with the power to judge of public questions and cast a right and proper vote at the polls when called upon to exercise the important right of the franchise, which has now been made so universal. The leading economic and social and industrial problems are discussed, and at the close of each chapter there are suggestive questions on the text. As a college or high school senior textbook this volume will find a wide and influential mission for itself, on its merits.

THE OUTLINE OF HISTORY. By H. G. Wells. Educational Edition, completely revised. Macmillan Company, New York. $5.00.

This third, or educational edition, is a story of the development of mankind presented as the mature work of Wells the historian, and set forth by the publishers as an authentic record of the world's history, backed by the authority of specialists in all fields, interpreted in a manner to interest the average intelligent reader. We believe this history is the best attempt, since the days of Peter Parley, to so arrange the thoughts, acts and beliefs of the human race, that they will appeal to the imagination and hold the attention of the youth in our grammar and high schools. This Mr. Wells has most admirably done in his "Outline." The historian does not always seem to wisely weigh his evidence, as might be instanced in his building the Neanderthal man and grading his intelligence from such fragmentary documents as are afforded by a portion of a skull or other ancient bones, of supposed human origin; but regarding with suspicion and distrust the basic features of Christianity. In the hands of a wise, capable and reverent teacher, this should prove a most valuable and inspiring text book.

A SCHOOL BUILDING PROGRAM FOR THE CITY OF DULUTH, MINNESOTA. By M. G. Neale (Univ. of Minn.) and S. B. Severson (same University), is a very full and suggestive pamphlet of 94 pp. and many tables and diagrams. It might well be consulted by other cities and localities where building programs are in contemplation.

Another pamphlet that is particularly well conceived and carried out is entitled "Written Examinations and Their Improvement." It is Bulletin No. 9 of the Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, published by the University of Illinois, at Urbana. Professor Will S. Monroe, Director, is its author,—and he is no stranger to the readers of EDUCATION.

QUANTITY COOKERY. By Lenore Richards, B.A., and Nola Treat, B.S. Little, Brown and Company. Price $2.00 net.

A valuable addition to the above-mentioned publishers' list of Home Economics manuals. Practical principles underlying the planning of menus for large numbers are set forth; standards for judging meals, types of menus, suggestive charts and lists, recipes, tables of weights and their approximate measures are given. The book will be of real service in many ways,—not the least being in the practical conduct of large boarding schools, college dining-halls, hospitals, clubs and fraternities.

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Educative Discipline

HENRY AMAND GEISERT, CRIPPLE CREEK, COLORADO.

THE ultimate object of education must be to produce a man of good, strong character, for such a product is the greatest asset with which the world can be blessed. A man of good character is one who has every faculty, whether psychic or physical, strengthened and fully developed, so that we may say of him: he is strong as steel and as flexible; his mind is broad but not shallow; his conscience is accurate but not austere; his will is strong but not stubborn; his emotions are responsive but not maudlin; his impulses are enthusiastic but not frivolous; his soul is solidly religious but not fanatical; every faculty of his body and soul is ready to be brought into play when good sense, the proper occasion, and the dictates of righteousness make the demand. Such, in brief, is the good character; here we have an all-around man. This man stands upon a pedestal, as it were, like a heroic figure, and from his eminence he analyzes all that lies at his feet, sees the identity of each element, studies the relationship of one to another, and, like the director of an orchestra, draws out each instrument, as it were, to add its volume when needed to properly balance the symmetry of the symphony which he has conceived.

To attain this symmetrical action means that we must have an established order. Order means that the less important must be subservient to the more important, each allotted its place, and the arrangement of such order can be the result of one thing only, and that is discipline; wherefore discipline must find a wide range in education.

That discipline is an essential formative factor in building character is a unanimous conclusion, but concerning the best method of its administration we find a divergence of ideas. Someone has said: "Break the child's will that it may not be lost." A thorough digestion of this principle will convince us that an essential element of pedagogy is contained therein. Yet it practically stands discredited today. The reason is because, instead of teaching the child to break its own will, the attempt to instill the harsh sounding principle was assayed by harsher methods. In the old school, discipline was enforced by external pressure. Tyrannical authority, a harsh *ego-dixi*, bodily contact with a rod, were regarded as constituting the only proper method of securing orderly conduct.

A more intimate study of human nature finally forced this fallacious idea into the discard. According to the newer ideas, the old method was harmful, because it gave no heed to the child's individuality; its will was crushed by external force, and so its initiative was destroyed. From this it naturally followed that the child habitually yielded to external influences, which weakness made it utterly unfit to battle successfully in a world in which advancement is purchased by reasonably independent and self-reliant assertiveness. No one can escape the force of this argument, nor refute the logic of the newer theory, which stoutly maintains that the development of the child's initiative and personality is paramount. That the dangerous tendency of the old system has been correctly diagnosed is plain; it is also plain that the new theory is correct; but it is not so plain that this principle is clearly understood in itself, while the conflicting opinions of its enthusiasts regarding the best method of practical application lead to mental confusion and doubt.

This confusion of opinions springs from a vague conception of

individuality and *personality*, which are promiscuously interchanged whereas they are different things indeed. Everyone has individuality, but not everyone is enriched by personality in its restricted sense. The component elements of human nature constitute individuality; personality is the apex or head of character. The homely comparison with a wheel may help to clear the point. If the area comprised by the rim and spokes constitutes individuality, the hub would be personality,—or we may say the periphery of a man's powers and activity constitutes his individuality, while the center of this circle would be his personality, which, being firmly grounded itself, becomes the pivot around which the periphery revolves. Or to make it clearer, the head compares to personality, the rest of the members of the body to individuality. Manifestly, the former should control the latter—not vice versa.

It is because this vital distinction is not kept clearly outlined that there is an ebb and flow of opposing opinions concerning the method of applying the principles among the modern disciplinarians. Worst of all, amid this confusion some enthusiasts have swung the pendulum to the far extreme and advocate an entire removal of discipline. "Let the child wag along," as we heard one eduactor say; "Remove all restraint;" "Do not interfere with its liberty;" "Destroy all hindrances so that its path shall be smooth;" and many other catchy slogans are trumpeted forth until today the logical result has been crystallized in "The Home of the Child," a Moscow institution which advocates a complete indulgence of childish whims and inclinations because thereby "the child develops an unrestricted liberty." I would not quarrel with the idea if the world were a Utopia in which lotus eaters might realize their exaggerated dreams. But life is a stern reality with some merciless exactions, and I submit as axiomatic that the education which does not prepare the individual to cope with the world and its temptations is positively dangerous. Can any man of average experience have the temerity to say that his success, temporal, moral, or spiritual, is due to self-indulgence or to the fact that others were always at hand to remove obstacles from his path? He

has achieved success because he resisted many a temptation that would swerve him from his ideal, and many a "hard knock" had to be borne with smiling lips—in a word, he was forced to self-control. "Let the child wag along," is the basis of a theory which can lead only to destruction.

Man, although a unit, is in a certain sense a duality—one yearning for the good, the other driving towards evil. And it all simmers down to this: To which of these two will our personality give the right of way? If to the former, the evil tendencies must be crushed; if to the latter, the soulful desire for better things must be denied—there is repression on either horn of the dilemma—and between these the choice must be made. MacCunning tersely sums up disciplinary wisdom when he says: "Development involves repression."

Again, man by nature is a gregarious animal and hence craves companionship with fellow-men. Here again, self-restraint becomes imperative, for while this natural tendency assures him certain rights, yet he will meet the point where his rights cease and his duties begin. He must not lie, not steal, not defraud or assault others, yet if he "lets himself go," he will do those very things which entail fatal consequences for him, and to avoid these he is forced to control himself.

If letting people do as they please is right, why punish them when they violate the social or moral code? Why spend the ransom of a kingdom annually to bring criminals to their just deserts? They are doing precisely as they please, and if society is right when punishing malefactors, what justifiable foothold can that system have which advocates the removal of self-restraint? The overwhelming wave of criminality which inundates the world today is a forceful tribute to the utter lack of self-discipline which has struck its poisonous fangs into the social body from its highest to its lowest stratum. Why do men commit crime, It is because the allurement from without entices and appeals to something within, and instead of offering psychic resistance and repulsing the invasion, the tempted person yields and the transgression becomes an accomplished fact. Can any sane man call this instabil-

ity liberty? On the contrary, such a person is the weathervane of any circumstances from without or any impulse from within; he is a weakling, and as such destined *to be determined,* but never to be *self-determining,* and his very liberty becomes entombed in the chaotic avalanche which ultimately caves in from all sides.

That the view of the lack of self-determination unfolded above is not overdrawn becomes clear to any one who thoughtfully studies the attitude of subservience taken by individuals of all classes when confronting public opinion. Garb an idea in plausibility and no reasons are necessary to assure its acceptance by the masses. An appeal to the emotions leaps like a whirlwind from mind to mind, while sound logic is but "a voice crying in the wilderness." Herein lies the reason for our national disgrace,—lynch law; herein we find adequate explanation for the instability wherewith the masses apotheosize today what they trample in the dust tomorrow. Yet all the while they think they are ruled by their head, when in reality they are swayed by a cunning appeal to their emotions. Were this condition characteristic of a few individuals, it would be a negligible phenomenon, but it is distinctively a national trait,—so much so that it excites comment abroad,—which proves that as a nation we are saturated to the core with a radical social defect. These are the facts which personal observations will delineate most clearly and daily experiences will confirm.

The dangers outlined above are real, but they are due to excessive enthusiasm, which twists the principle of the new system of discipline to a very illogical but very possible conclusion. The principle is fundamentally sound and embodies the basic elements of educational wisdom. It agrees with the antiquated idea that the child's will must be broken, but differs from the former in that it insists that by an appeal to reason and by penetrating instructions the child should be swayed to break its own will, provided we understand by "breaking" *a free will determination* to ruthlessly uproot all inclinations to evil and uniformly cultivate an unshakable persistency in the pursuit of good. Thus the new idea of discipline asserts its superiority over the old because

it makes a bid for the child's goodwill and hearty co-operation. Once this is attained and a persistent pursuit of this course is instilled, it must follow that the student will be sound through and through, and we may depend upon him to be steadfast in the moment of temptation because he is stabilized by the gyroscope of good character.

From the foregoing, it logically follows that any educational endeavor to produce the most cherished results is compelled to embody a formal class of characterology, which, because of its importance, must be the revolving point of all other classes and training courses. This view cannot be objected to by any advocate of the latter school of disciplinarians, for on the one hand their espoused method, when employing every means available, essentially makes for good character; and, on the other hand, no one can point to a worthier ideal or a more deserving purpose for the hardships of an educator's sacrificial life.

The professor of characterology should minutely but attractively draw the plan of good character, so that it becomes fully understood by each pupil. But, as the plans of the architect are useless unless the builder constructs the design, so the knowledge of character, to be of real value, must be actually put into practice. Hence the teacher must follow with the additional truth, that while others may guide and direct, it becomes the pupil's duty to do his own character-building by carefully cementing each stone in its allotted place, or the character will never be reared, and no better slogan could be adopted than, "You are the architects of your own fate." There should follow in array the phalanx of reasons, both abstract and concrete, which make character the most desirable thing; nor should we fail to graphically depict the reasons which should turn us against all things which hinder the attainment of this end. These points will saturate the mind with the excellence and advantages of good character.

By pointing out accurately the difficulties which beset the path, the field is opened for a logical appeal to manliness, self-respect, honor and courage; to the moral, social and religious reasons,—in fact, to all those motives of chivalry and heroic endeavor which

are the outgrowth of a strong will and which are, in rudiment at least, so strongly imbedded in children and to which they respond so generously with the determination "to do or die." In this manner, the individual interests become centered upon this point, and the juvenile endeavorers receive a sense of direction which will eventually crystallize into an interlocked unity of all its forces, which personality, resting upon the solid stratification of character, shall sway from its transcendent heights, as highest ideals and most wholesome interests demand. With such training the adult person has learned to emancipate himself from foreign influences and become self-determining through unshakable convictions.

It is hardly necessary to mention that a mere formal period of characterology alone cannot produce speedy, much less efficient, results. Every teacher thoroughly versed in the subject must add his share to aid the pupil in executing the conceived plan. Untold opportunities present themselves in the routine work of the day. Is the lesson difficult? By overcoming these difficulties you will become master. Are you inclined to be lazy? To yield means to become a weakling. Do you rob bird's nests? To do so will make you cruel like Nero; and, moreover, does it require any manhood to frighten a little mother-bird or to destroy eggs no larger than a marble? Do you want to steal apples? Will stealing make anything but a sneaking thief and contemptible man of you? Besides, what about the higher, God-given law, "Thou shalt not steal?" Have you done anything that deserves punishment and are you inclined to lie out of it? Where is your courage and manhood? Are you too cowardly "to take your medicine"? Do you propose to be classified with slaves instead of with nature's noblemen? Do you know how the Athenian nobles distinguished themselves from their slaves? They called themselves "We the Truthful," to show that they would not debase themselves by a lie. If your neighbor has offended you, do you want to backbite him or take revenge? If you do, are you not stooping down to his level of infamy? And how can you climb upward when you deliberately sink yourself? Besides, were this not to fly in the face of

God, who declares "Thou shalt not bear false witness," as well as "Revenge is mine, I will repay"? Dont' you want to obey? You must obey all your life, or become the spurned of men; and how will you learn to obey unless you practice this virtue? Then again, what about God's declaration, "Obedience is better than sacrifice"?

Why not give as themes for composition work a subject related to moral or social obligations, and then stimulate a general discussion of the views presented? Or a chance remark by a pupil may suggest an opening for a general, but always attractive, exchange of ideas; and this informal discussion will accomplish more in fifteen minutes than a week in formal class instruction will do. But, in these instances, Pestalozzi's idea, that the teacher should not remove difficulties but judiciously guide the pupil to find his own solution, is most excellent.

The energy displayed in boyish pranks is in itself a good, and if seized in proper manner, may be diverted to a wholesome and educative advantage. Rare indeed is the wisdom and understanding of that teacher who found himself caricatured upon the blackboard by some of his pupils. His first move was to express surprise at the "artistic aptitude" shown in the figures on the board. At the same time he "thought they might be improved upon," and, taking a piece of chalk, he, with a few bold strokes, made the caricature more sightly, and finished with the declaration that the "ability" displayed deserved to be developed, and for this purpose he would give them lessons in drawing. He understood that the apparent insult sprang more from mischief than malice, and so he turned the underlying energy into wholesome channels, while at the same time he solidified his personal position by enthroning himself in the hearts of his pupils. Thus, ceaseless vigilance and wise grasping of opportunities will suggest countless occasions to saturate the head and heart of pupils with practical character construction. A general exchange, a sort of clearing-house, might be located to which all experiences along this line may be reported by the teachers within a prescribed district, and after the stories are classified they could be mailed to

the teachers and thus all derive benefit from individual experiences.

Bodily drill is essential to thorough development, hence it must find a place in our educational endeavors. An all-around man must be produced, and since body and soul react upon each other, it follows that control of the body must be learned just as much as any other desirable acquisition. The soul is the master mechanic, as it were, which wants to assert its skill, but the best artisan becomes discouraged with inadequate tools. Bodily discipline and drill for the mere sake of outward order is reprehensible, but with an explanation which impresses the wisdom and advantages and necessity thereof to establish psychic control over physical faculties, leads to a willing submission to what usually arouses rebellion. This practice instills the habit of faithfully performing many duties which are disagreeable to personal likes and inclinations, and no better preparations can be made by anyone to meet the exactions of life, in which the daily task only too often simmers down to a monotonous routine. This daily task is an expression of man's social utility, and it should be given due regard by means of manual training, whereby body and soul become co-ordinated powers in fitting the individual into his allotted place of usefulness. The strongest argument that I can urge for this view is the fact that not illiteracy, but lack of a trade, is characteristic of criminals as a class. This lack of profitable productivity, when compared to the honor wherewith efficiency is wreathed, leads to disgust, and thence it is only a step to sloth and idleness, which in itself is a standing invitation to the devil to work his way. It is the one open shop that should be closed, and honest, wholehearted, well-beloved work will bar the entrance effectively in many respects.

I have so far laid stress almost exclusively upon character as of personal importance, because if we wish to draw the circumference of a circle, the center must be definitely fixed. But man is not sufficient unto himself, for "It is not good for man to be alone," hence he is destined to form only an integral part of the social mosaic, which circumstance grants him certain privileges

and imposes certain duties. For his and society's welfare this fact cannot be overlooked in the process of development. Unless he is to become a fly in the social ointment, he must learn to yield, not in deed where principle forbids, but where moral expedience permits,—in a word, he must become a miniature diplomat. Of all systems advocated to develop this indispensable quality, the new disciplinarians have hit upon the most sensible and most effective means, because it proposes to reach the end over the avenue of the pupil's self-interest. The method is that of "Games."

It is in play that the disciple is thrown into close contact with others. The rivalry rouses mutual resistance, and here the boy must maintain his own rights and quickly secure his own advantages without infringing the rights of others or depriving them of their prerogatives. Every incentive to co-ordinate the faculties of body and soul, and to establish team-work between them, is here brought to the surface. The latter to instantly perceive, the former as quickly to execute those little master-strokes which often act as the pivot upon which defeat, already in sight, is turned into brilliant success. Every power which his gregarious instinct embraces is here brought into play, and upon the campus the teacher can do more by just guidance in an hour than can be accomplished by a month's theorizing in the classroom. Wherefore no money is more beneficially applied than the salary of the teacher in athletics, because the right man, by grinding a sense of "fair play" into the very marrow of the bones, bestows additional firmness upon society by increasing its stabilized units.

It is precisely these stabilized units of the social organism, these men of self-control, which are the greatest desideratum for the welfare of the world. Nor is the reason which makes their desirability paramount hard to find. Such men are always safe, whether alone or with others. And they are safe because their self-control is the result of self-discipline.

Perhaps the point will become more pronounced by the following contrast: Legal enactments may take from men the means of wrong-doing, but this does not change the man at heart, because

his desire to do evil still lingers on. If removing opportunities for evil makes men good, then our imprisoned criminals are the acme of perfection,—a conclusion which not even the most optimistic would espouse. Such a man needs but a chance and he is upon his sinful way; the man of self-control may be given the chance but he remains immune. The first still wants to, but doesn't because he can't; what we need are men who can, but don't because they won't. The former obeys the police force imposed from without; the latter yields to the force of conviction self-imposed from within. And this latter qualification should be created in every pupil by shaping our educational discipline so that it provokes the full *free will* co-operation of the student, thus stimulating self-discipline. But under no condition can we countenance the modern trend of abrogating disciplinary measures entirely and letting children "do as they please," for this is the road which leads to individual psychic chorea and to social chaos and destruction.

Arbutus - Time

Oh! it's arbutus-time in the north-land,
  And the bluebirds are singing, "Good cheer."
By the brook pussy-willow is nodding
  A greeting to all,—for spring's here.

When it's arbutus-time in the north-land,
  Dainty blossoms you'll find everywhere—
'Neath the pines, or on knolls, in the sunshine;
  Sweet the fragrance that's filling the air.

Oh! it's arbutus-time in the northland;
  Gentle, soft, whispering breezes caress
All nature, arrayed in much splendor
  Of a green, flower-trimmed, spring-time dress.

When it's arbutus-time in the north-land,
  What joy to wander alone
Through the sweet-smelling woodland and valleys;
  Over all there's a charm surely thrown.

Oh! it's arbutus-time in the north-land,
  A season of promise and song;
For the earth is awake from its slumber,
  Free from cold winter's bondage so strong.

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The Juvenile Delinquent

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SOME one has said that delinquency seems analogous to a mental disease, a peculiar anti-social state of mind that requires as skilled treatment as other types of mental aberration. If this be true, there will not be much progress in reforming children unless this reformation begins in the elementary school grades, during the so-called plastic age. In this country efforts have been made to re-form children, or in other words, to build real character, not so much through a worked-out practical course in this line, as through individual study of the child's needs and sympathetic help on the part of the teacher or social worker. For some years the schools of the United States, perhaps from a realization of the impossibility of getting the best results in educational work through the masses, have been breaking away from the idea of dealing with their boys and girls *en masse,* and are sifting them into types and groups of types. Among these we find the type in which we now are interested,—the youthful delinquent.

Primarily a problem for the public schools to solve, as juvenile delinquency is, its very seriousness makes it one most difficult to work out. Let us consider three factors in this problem: the *cause* of *delinquency;* the *assistance* we are giving the *delinquent boy* or *girl;* the *help* we *shall give* the *delinquent boy* or *girl.*

We usually term the delinquent boy or girl one who uses his powers in the wrong direction. A child becomes a delinquent, not because of the commission of a single act which may lead to his arrest, but because of the fact that the sum of his behavior indicates an irregularity in his conduct out of proportion to his healthful impulses. Delinquency seldom, if ever, develops spontaneously. Its development is gradual and presents a series of early symptoms easily recognized. Many theories have been formulated concerning the *delinquent,* and of these one lays stress on the fact that crime is based on abnormality and is fostered by environment, physical and social. The peril of delinquency, then, is largely a problem of economic and social conditions. Careful

study and research into cases classed under delinquency show the following causes for this conduct: (1) broken and unsettled homes; (2) lack of parental control; (3) poverty; (4) wealth; (5) undesirable influences outside the home; (6) industrial conditions in which the child drifts into misdemeanors; (7) crowded population without recreational opportunities.

It is needless to remark that the first factor mentioned above is the most fruitful in causing delinquency, and joins forces with neglect, abuse and lack of parental control. The freedom and lack of discipine, as common in the homes of the rich as in those of the poor, show the influence of wealth as a powerful cause for delinquency. The outside influences of moving pictures, public bathing beaches, free use of automobiles, of older people who subtly take advantage of those younger than themselves,—these, too, are snares laid to entrap boys and girls who have no experience, knowledge or judgment to guide them. Economic and social conditions then, must be changed, if this difficult problem of delinquency is to be solved.

From a paper recently submitted by Eleanor Hope Johnson, we have a picture of the delinquent with relation to his *conduct, home environment,* and *health.*

Conduct	Home Environment	Health
(a) Violent temper	(a) Father dead	(a) Defective teeth
(b) Insolence	(b) Irregular worker	(b) " vision
(c) Disobedience	(c) Father non English	(c) " hearing
(d) Shirking work	(d) " alcoholic	(d) Adenoids
(e) Inattentive behavior	(e) " immoral	(e) Tonsils
(f) Bully	(f) " harsh, cruel	(f) Weak lungs
(g) Coward	(g) " mentally defective	(g) " heart
(h) Sulks	(h) Mother dead	(h) Malnutrition
(i) Occasional truant	(i) " works	(i) Neurological def.
(j) Constant "	(j) " non English	(j) Other physical defects
(k) " liar	(k) " alcoholic	(k) Constitutionally weak
(l) Steals occasionally	(l) " immoral	
(m) " constantly	(m) " defective	
(n) Gangster	(n) Parents quarrel	
(o) Inveterate smoker	(o) " separated	
(p) Movie habit	(p) Unsympathetic stepfather	
(q) Sex habit	(q) Boy lives with grandmother	
	(r) Boy boarded out	
	(s) Home poor	
	(t) Neighborhood poor	

Another interesting report from the State of Connecticut (a result of tests in the schools), shows that the intellectual retardation is about 2.5 years. By individual tests about one-fifth were found defective, one-fourth borderline, one-fourth dull, one-fifth normal, and one-twelfth superior.

Knowing these conditions, the public schools of this country are confronted with this problem, namely, that of adopting the right kind of preventive measures. Psychologists who have made careful studies in delinquency, claim that mental deficiency is less likely to lead to delinquency if the individual is equipped with well-formed habits of skill and regularity. This plea for the continuation school is a forcible one, especially from the industrial point of view? Yet, in solving the problem of delinquency, it seems that one must go back to the old theory that life is divided into three parts: work, rest, and recreation; and that the safeguards of the youth today are the home, the church, the school, and the influence of other social agencies. Supervision of the adolescent in his work may, after all, be the keynote of the healthy boy or girl.

President Harding, just before his election to the presidency, stated at an address to the Ohio Child Welfare Association, that mothers should make the most of the less and less time left them for direct influence for good on their children, and in this way co-operate with all the other agencies trying to help in child-welfare. He emphasized the need of more of firm religious faith.

Again, a well known authority on juvenile delinquency, C. F. Clarke, states that if we are to lessen vice we must begin work by a careful study of the individual in the schools, with the idea of controlling and directing and, too, of *treating* the defective and the diseased.

Herbert Baker, in the American Journal of Sociology, places the responsibility of the reformation and correction of incorrigibles in educational institutions. In the face of all this, the schools have shown that if delinquency can be prevented they will act on suggestions, and, as a matter of fact, as statistics prove, they have succeeded in lessening the number of delinquent cases.

The following suggestions may act as preventive or restorative measures in dealing with delinquents: *first,* alert community interest; *second,* protection against family neglect; *third,* checking incipient waywardness; *fourth,* protective officers; *fifth,* housing, social life, recreation; *sixth,* sex instruction; and *last* but *not least,* deep religious belief and convictions.

We get the following data from our own state, Massachusetts. It is gleaned from a statistical report of the work done in the training schools of this state. The state maintains, at present, three of these training schools, namely: the Lyman School for Boys, situated at Westboro; Industrial School for Boys at Shirley; Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster. At these schools the boy or girl is carefully studied and then graded. Academic and manual training are given and the child is supplied with wholesome recreational activities. The Lyman School has organized a band and given much pleasure through its concerts. The health (a very important item) of each child is carefully looked after, and weak children have improved physically very much during their years at this school. The same holds good for the other training schools; while the parole system has to its credit many more trustworthy than unreliable children.

It is difficult to measure the results of character training, yet according to the statistics of the above-quoted schools, the fact that a large majority of boys and girls succeed, when paroled, ought to give some reason for satisfaction. Do not these facts prove that discipline, rightly understood, is the moral woof of school education and the character-forming aspect of the whole process?

We must bear in mind, too, that in considering a delinquent child we must consider two views: *first,* that, according to certain authorities on child welfare, a delinquent child is one who has committed some serious fault or petty crime, and that he is deserving of retributive punishment; *second,* that, according to the opinion of others interested in child welfare, the delinquent child is more sinned against than sinning, who, by reason of his

environment, gets into trouble, and who is deserving of commiseration and protection against the evils that surround him.

We have the two opinions then, that the so-called delinquent is either a victim of circumstances or an incipient criminal. The term victim must be considered in two phases: first, as a victim of the neglect of parental control and home influences; and second, of the conditions of society of the present day. Summing up the principal causes of delinquency, we may class them as follows:

Subnormal conditions, e. g., malnutrition, defective vision or hearing, organic weakness, cigarettes;

Inefficient parenthood;

Degraded parenthood;

Vicious associates, engendered by the street habit.

What remedies shall we apply? Are not the following among the best?—

First—"Make the home what it ought to be and the child will generally be what he ought to be." Place the parent on probation.

Second—An adequate "parole system."

Third—Censorship of a child's reading matter.

Fourth—Laws to forbid the selling of cigarettes to inexperienced youngsters.

Fifth—Safe, healthy recreation centers.

Sixth—Indoctrinating of moral and religious principles.

It would be well, too, to lay stress on the religious helps for a delinquent child. Handicapped from the associations of his environment, as well as from the sad inheritance bequeathed him by a tainted heredity, he needs help from Him who decreed from all eternity that such a child should take his place in the world. Suggestion and imitation play an important part in the child's life as he approaches adolescence; therefore, the impulses of the delinquent should be set toward those whom even in his sad career he has marked as superior to himself. It devolves on the teacher or the social worker, therefore, to gain the goodwill of the child. Alternatives of conduct in most cases of delinquency can be placed before the child; and, gradually, he will come to see that gentleness is compatible with strength, docility with freedom,

quiet deportment with manly courage, and obedience with personal initiative.

Of course, it is not to be expected that results will come at once, but patience will work wonders in even the worst cases of delinquency. Kindness in institutions established for the delinquents cannot but win a child, and, gradually, the thought of former wicked associations will vanish. Was it not one of our prominent educators of today who said that he never received a kind word when he was a newsboy on the streets of ——? Did he not tell us, too, that a lady smiled at him one day, and if he could have found her he would have given her his papers and money, *his all?* An unsympathetic person, especially if that person happens to be a teacher, can do incalculable harm among youngsters, such as have been mentioned, who are on the borderline between normal and subnormal, and will frequently drive them into the juvenile criminal class. Frequently a child who does not get sympathy at home or in school will be driven to the streets for this sympathy which it craves, and, once in the streets, a normal child is not long in getting into the police toils.

It may be said that sympathy will not always prove effectual in dealing with a delinquent child, but let us not forget that the greatest teacher the world has ever known or will know, Jesus Christ himself, taught through kindness and won to a knowledge of right thinking and living those who in our terms of today would be classed as delinquents. What is better for the vast heaving masses of humanity, with all the woes of life upon them, than one act of faith, one whisper of hope, one smoldering spark of divine love? How many millions of men and women today there are who bear their heavy burdens with patience, almost with gladness, for they are ministering to fellow-creatures, to those, who, otherwise would be exposed to scorn and ridicule, and often through no fault of their own? Truly the care of the delinquent is a work that calls for the highest commendation from all interested not only in the work of education in the schoolroom, but in that of outside influences. Are not those in charge of the delinquent boy or girl "weaving beautiful tapestries of virtue on the looms of sorrow, and with the white hands of pain"? This is

consoling for those engaged in this difficult work of preventing delinquency, or for those interested in the restorative phase of the subject. This age is an age of unrest, and those children placed in an environment that breathes only unrest or contempt for law, order and restraint, imbibe the spirit of dishonesty, want of probity, and lack of morality in general.

Is it surprising that truancy is assuming so vast proportions in the schools of today? Since many think that truancy is the prime cause of juvenile delinquency, and delinquency in thousands of cases is incipient crime, is there a phase of educational work that should receive greater attention than this of delinquency? The future usefulness of the citizen is at stake, but—what is of greater importance—the moral future of the truant or the delinquent is a factor not to be lightly set aside.

It would seem that the present juvenile court if retained only for the delinquents who are not truants, would have its work greatly reduced. This lessening of work on the part of the courts would necessarily impose more responsibility on the school authorities. The whole machinery could, however, be centered in one bureau with power to act. Special legislative enactments would be necessary, but the result would, it seems, be beneficial. This department, if created, could try all truancy cases, commit all truants to parental schools, provide for the support of truants of pauper parents, secure medical attention when needed, and, finally, issue work certificates. A condition might be attached to these work certificates, namely, that such certificates be revoked or suspended where the holders are chronically unemployed.

Therefore, with all the elements which combine to make the delinquent or the truant,—some of which lie deep in the social fabric and others obvious and admitting of quicker elimination,—a problem not easily diagnosed presents itself, as we have stated. It devolves, then, on those engaged in the work of reforming the delinquent to give impetus sufficient to counteract environment and downright parental neglect. Institutions for the delinquent stand for law and order, and as such are one of the greatest forces in the world today for good. Let all interested in this work co-operate with the authorities in this much needed reformation of the unfortunate delinquent.

A Special Program for Intellectually Superior Children

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ANY one who has visited the usual class-room has observed that the instruction is adapted to the large middle group. When there is opportunity to give individual help, it is given to the children who cannot do the work of the grade without assistance. But what about the very bright children? They are not problems, and consequently receive no special consideration. The bright pupil loafs along, because his standards are set by the average pupil. Just listening in will enable him to meet the requirements. The occasional boy or girl—and it is usually a boy—who rebels at the deadening effect of such procedure, improvises ways and means to amuse himself during his spare time, and frequently gets into mischief that results in his getting attention,—but not the kind that will help him develop to his maximum capacity

We think of the child who is obliged to repeat a grade as being retarded. A great many pupils in our schools are repeaters, and retardation on the part of backward pupils is a serious educational and financial problem. We do not, however, seem to be concerned to any great extent with the children of superior mental capacity. Pupils of unusual mental ability who do poor or average work are just as much retarded as are pupils who have average ability and cannot do the work of the grade at the rate it is usually given. The consequences of retardation on the part of pupils of exceptional mental capacity should be of more concern to educators and parents than retardation among pupils who are backward. The dull child is continually urged to do his best, and because of such urging acquires habits that will mean as much to him in his life's work as the knowledge he may gain in the

class-room. On the other hand, a bright pupil who does average work, forms habits that will do him immeasurable harm. Each child should be expected and encouraged to accomplish tasks in accordance with his ability. The bright pupil should have placed before him tasks which are just as difficult for him to accomplish as are the tasks set before the pupil of lesser ability.

Unquestionably the brilliant pupils are retarded, and attention is now being directed towards them. Children of the upper extremes of the intellectual scale need, and for their own sake, are entitled to, special training as much as those of the lower extremes; and indeed they are more entitled to it for reasons of broad social policy. The waste and loss of power, both intellectual and moral, from the inadequate development of children of great potentiality can be ill afforded by any community. The usual treatment for gifted children has been rapid advancement through the school. Those who have been granted this privilege have been too few in number and improperly selected, and the method, while better than none at all, is inadvisable from the viewpoint of the best moral and social development of the pupil. In a school system which provides for rapid promotion of bright pupils, such pupils are sent to the high school at a much earlier age than customary. Consequently they enter college several years younger than most students, and are therefore improperly grouped from the standpoint of other than mental considerations.

A pupil of twelve may be mentally able to do the high school work, but we must reckon with the fact that mentally mature children are not necessarily physically, socially or morally mature. Children select their associates on the basis of chronological or birthday age, and then when selections are made from those of the same birthday age mental age is a factor in the process. One can readily see that the child of twelve cannot feel much at home with freshmen in the high school who are two years his senior. The college freshman of fifteen does not fit into the scheme of things with students of eighteen or nineteen.

There is a belief abroad that children of superior mental capacity are not normal in their conduct and activities. We reach such

a conclusion by our observation of a few children of our acquaintance who are exceptionally bright and to us seem queer. Now, as a matter of fact, there is a smaller percentage of physical, mental and moral freaks among children of high intellectual rating than among children in general, but freakishness may and often does develop in superior children from lack of suitable training and environment.

Rapid promotion for gifted children solves some problems and makes others. A better plan is to provide in a special way for gifted children by greatly enriching their courses of study. By such a plan it will be possible for boys and girls of the same ages to associate in social and physical activities and receive different treatment in their mental work.

One, of course, asks how the course of study is to be enriched for these pupils. In answering this question, let us consider a program of work which could be given to a high school class of exceptional pupils who are preparing for college. We shall describe a college preparatory curriculum, because the great majority of these pupils of superior ability will continue their education in our higher institutions.

The usual college preparatory program calls for English, Mathematics, Languages, Science and History. The specific work required by those institutions which maintain the highest entrance standards consists of four years of English, two years of Algebra, one year of Plane Geometry, four years of languages, one year of Science and one year of History, totaling twelve units. The remaining three units can be selected from the same fields or from a very limited list of other courses. A class of gifted children will, of course, be expected to include in its program the subjects which we have enumerated. This is not saying that those are the best ones to prepare for advanced work, but inasmuch as they will be required by colleges for some time to come, we must make plans for conditions as they are. The curriculum, then, for this special class of gifted children will include English, Languages, Mathematics, Science, and History, and some other courses which we shall list later.

The program of work for the gifted children will be enriched in two ways: the content of the usual courses will be enlarged and the courses included in preparation will be increased in number. It must be borne in mind that gifted children can, if they work with the same effort as the average, accomplish a great deal more than is ordinarily done by the usual class.

What, then, will be the program of work for pupils of superior mental capacity who are preparing for higher institutions? To begin with, the customary English courses will be pursued, but copious and extensive reading of the best literature will be expected in addition. Whereas the average student reads very little beyond the bare requirements, much literature will be read by the superior pupil primarily for enjoyment or pleasure, and not for the purpose of dissecting or criticizing.

Assuming that the modern language selected is French, it is expected that gifted pupils will acquire the ability to converse in the language as well as read it. In French classes where all kinds of ability are presented it is impossible to acquire conversational knowledge in addition to reading ability, since the time that might be used for practice in conversation is given to the backward pupil who needs to be drilled in verb forms and checked up in general. Gifted pupils do not need the large amount of drill that is ordinarily given in the language classes to fix vocabulary and verb forms.

French will be studied the entire four years.. Such a program will make possible a mastery of the language for practical purposes. The period of one or two years which the average students spend on a language is wasted for most of them, for the knowledge gained during such a short time is not sufficient to make possible any practical use of it in social and business intercourse.

Those students who pursue Latin will be expected to get an acquaintanceship with Latin literature, read in either the original or the translations. The student, therefore, will get a much wider acquaintance with Latin literature than he would get from an intensive study of a very limited field.

The college requirements in Mathematics include Algebra and

Plane Geometry. The best technical schools require also a knowledge of Solid Geometry and Trigonometry. The gifted pupils will pursue the usual work in Mathematics, but in addition will be given a course which combines the various fields and makes direct applications of all branches of Mathematics within the range of the individual student's knowledge. As Mathematics is generally taught today, even the bright pupils are completely lost when an Algebra problem appears in another branch of Mathematics. Really, the main reason for pursuing theoretical mathematical work is to acquire a knowledge of and facility in using it in the various situations which arise in technical courses or in actual work in which one may be engaged.

The reader has been informed as to how the Language and Mathematics courses are to be enriched. Now what shall be the procedure in History and Science? History is not satisfactorily taught in most secondary schools. Usually the pupil pursues one course of Ancient History, Modern European History, or United States History. He knows a little about a limited field, but has no general historical knowledge. A class of gifted children should be given History in each of the four years. During the first three years there should be a background built up for the work of the fourth year. There should be a general survey of history from early times, beginning with Ancient History and followed by European History, then Unitel States History. These courses will suffice to provide a setting for the main course in History, which will be given in the senior year: namely, "The Problems of Modern Civilization as They Concern the United States." The enrichment in the History instruction will be in the giving of the final course, which really is the essential.

In the field of Science these superior pupils should be given introductory courses which will open up the general field of Science and ensure an acquaintance with elementary Physics, Chemistry, Astronomy, Biology, and other sciences which can be pursued with profit by secondary school pupils. With the background obtained through the general science work, which may be distributed over two or three years, an intensive course in Physics or Chemistry may then be pursued.

These pupils should also have opportunity to pursue courses in art and music, and to participate in activities which will train them to make worthy use of their leisure. I refer to such activities as debating, glee club, mandolin, and orchestra work, dramatics, and the various athletic games which are included in a complete regimen of physical training.

In addition to pursuing class-room courses, the children of superior mentality will find time to spend several hours a week in the laboratories outside the school building. This refers to factories, museums, civic buildings, and places of historic and artistic interest. Through their contact with the outside world they will gain experiences and a fund of information which will make their school work more real. These trips should become a part of the regular program of the school, carefully organized, and the information secured should be used in the various school courses. To illustrate: a visit to the State House would provide material for reports in English, History or Civics; a visit to a factory might provide material for English, Mathematics, Science, and Geography. Taking the school out of the narrow confines of a building and bringing the pupils into intimate contact with the work of the world is a worthy aim for any educational institution.

The program of work which I have described for a class of mentally superior children will provide a broad preparation for college study and will develop students of ability and character. Two great factors determine to a very large extent the success of an individual: moral character and intellectual capacity. Unless the pupil of superior intellect is provided with opportunities which challenge his superior capacity, and unless he is expected and required to give his maximum effort, there is great danger that he will develop a flabby character.

The Swedish School Law of 1918 Compared with the British Education Act of 1918

P. H. Pearson, Washington, D. C.

THE Swedish law of 1918 requires the public school education ending at 14 to be continued by a minimum of 360 hours, or a period above that up to a maximum of 540 hours. These are to be distributed over at least two, and at most three years. The law opens educational lines in two directions, one of vocational studies and one of general studies of an advanced character.

The dominating branch in the vocational and crafts schools is selected in accordance with the needs of the area in which the school is located. Where agriculture and related pursuits dominate, the local authorities will organize the courses with reference to these interests, appoint teachers, devise plans and provide facilities with a view to agriculture as the central aim. As a guide for the local organizers the Department of Education has published type outlines for apprentice and crafts schools that succeed and supplement the continuation period.

Under the new system, pupils who have done the 360 hours (usually two years) and who are employed in shops, offices, or in household work, may enter the apprentice school. The apprentice school is organized to cover two years, each year comprising eight or nine months with a minimum of eight hours and a maximum of twelve hours a week, scheduled for week days between the hours of 7 a. m. and 8 p. m.

The community that establishes and maintains an apprentice school has the right to decide that minors who are employed in industry, trades or commerce shall be required to attend to the extent that conditions make advisable. These requirements shall, under all circumstances, cease with the completion of the pupils eighteenth year. Instruction is free. Expenses for maintenance

shall be provided in part by the state and in part by the community.

The crafts schools, continuing from the apprentice schools, are optional, more elastic in their organization, and calendated to afford mechanics and skilled workmen advanced technical and economic instruction in the crafts in which they are engaged.

The British Education Act, which went into effect August 8, 1918, provides a new basis for financing the entire school system. The former State-grants are substituted by one single appropriation computed on the basis of specified regional needs and circumstances, yet so apportioned that it does not fall below one-half of the local budget for the schools and for children's welfare.

The act aims to define the authority vested in each controlling body. All bodies and school boards are to constitute single local authorities or consolidation of these. Their chief function is to devise plans of instruction in conference with the parents and guardians of the pupils. The plan must, however, be approved by the Central Board of Education.

The law just adopted makes the communities responsible for the care and training of its children from the second to the eighteenth year. To this end the local authorities must establish nursery schools for children between two and five years. But attendance on these schools depends on the wishes of the parents. The required elementary period extends from the age of five until fourteen.

From the year 1925 on, children and adolescents will be required to attend instruction till their eighteenth year. From fifteen to eighteen their attendance is to comprise 320 hours, distributed over 40 weeks. For the first seven years after the law goes into effect the local authorities may reduce the number of hours to 280 a year.

The British Act is founded on a new conception of the Government's duty to its children and young people. Psychic and physical health is the object of the nursery school; the law guards them in the years that follow by explicit regulation of the use of children's labor power. No child below twelve may be compelled to work. No child above twelve may be required to work more

than two hours on Sundays and holidays nor until after the close of school hours on school days; and under no circumstances between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m. The local board is also made responsible for helping young children in their choice of occupation. To this end, information and help are to be given all pupils before completing the elementary school.

Both enactments sprang from deep-lying causes felt in their full significance during the years of the war. The Swedish law embodied the progressive trends of society and industry. The British Education Act was a "far-reaching war measure," comprising the co-ordination and expansion of the British school system, including within its scope welfare arrangements connected with education.

Both laws are frameworks which local authorities, under the advice of central boards, are to fill in with living ideas. Both are obligatory; both may compel attendance till the pupils eighteenth year; both provide the option of part-time and full-time attendance, hence the possibility of completing the requirements in a longer or shorter time; both provide free instruction to pupils who are without necessary means; both leave a great deal of latitude to the local authorities in determining the kind of school to be established and the kind of subjects to be taught. Both enactments require an arrangement between the employer and the school, such that the wage-earning pupil is released certain specified hours a week in order to attend classes.

Further, both laws encourage experiment and urge local educational authorities to fit their schemes to the varying educational demands of their areas. Local authorities are required to submit to a central board for its approval a suitable and adequate scheme for the local area. Though central control is maintained to ensure efficiency, wide and tolerant views are held towards the special circumstances that may differentiate one area from another.

The two laws differ in some important respects. First, the British law covers the entire period of instruction—elementary, secondary, technical—while the Swedish law covers only the period from the age of fourteen to eighteen. The Swedish law is a

compact State arrangement; it is complete in details; its schemes are supplemented by workable programs and proposals; it divides the new schools into craft schools and general schools, and specifies the different subjects to be taught in each division. In its supplementary proposals the Swedish law outlines the courses and fixes the time—subject of course to reasonable deviation—to be allotted to the main branches; thus, for instance, the vocational schools are to be given about one-half the time to occupational and craft knowledge, from one-tenth to one-sixth to sociology, from one-sixth to one-fourth Swelish, and one-twelfth to physical culture.

In its scope the British law covers three stages: nursery schools up to five, elementary schools to fourteen, continuation schools till eighteen. It includes also a range of welfare work, curtailing child labor and providing medical treatment and physical training for all pupils. It encourages and helps the local authorities in England to organize holiday or school camps, physical training centers and playing fields.

The British law throws greater responsibility on the local authorities. The Board of Education assists them chiefly in an advisory capacity, but the local board must devise their own plans, programs and courses. In carrying out its measures the British law permits school areas to exercise discretionary power and leniency in view of conditions that prevail within certain areas. A poor or backward community may be relieved from certain exactions without also excusing other communities.

While less comprehensive in its scope, the Swedish law is more complete in the details of all the departments it covers. It provides also for points of continuity between the several school types of the system. It provides continuation and repetition courses for children who have gone through an incomplete elementary school or who have not obtained testimonials from a complete elementary school. These courses are designed to consolidate and extend whatever knowledge has been acquired.

In England, as well as in Sweden, the first work of reorganization consisted in converting existing schools wherever possible

and adapting their programs to the new requirements. The experience gained early showed that certain subsidiary and enabling enactments were necessary. To procure the means and the equipment for the new forms was sufficiently difficult, but the chief difficulty lay in the lack of teachers trained to teach the new courses. In 1920 the Riksdag of Sweden passed a supplementary law looking towards the establishing of a central training college for teachers of the crafts and occupations; another measure adopted the same year provides for a State institution for art training and art industry.

In both England and Sweden the struggle with new organizations has brought the local school patronage together in conference on educational problems. They were called upon to come to agreement on the kind of a crafts school their locality needed and the branches that might be taken up within the latitude of the State programs. While this co-operation deepened their sense of responsibility for the youth of their area, it also prompted towards a survey of local needs, local resources, local talent among pupils in the school age, and in general a reaching-out towards unused local opportunities.

All the measures contemplated in the two enactments are, however, at the present writing hampered and delayed by the expenditures they involve.

Hope

O, sorry fields!
O, sorry fields,
On past your walls a belted Venus steals.

O, crosses white!
O, crosses white,
Your city streets are bathed in holy light.

O, poppies red!
O, poppies red.
Over the braves your hope-fringed petals shed.

Minnie E. Hays,
Essex Junction, Vt.

Vocational Guidance as Part of the High School Program

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"THE most important factor of all in the life of the wage-worker is the job—the daily job." This is one of Whiting Williams' foremost impressions gained from seven months' experience as a laborer in mine and in shipyard. This declaration by the author of "What's on the Worker's Mind," is finding re-echo at present in many discussions of industrial relations. Surprise at the intensity of industrial conflict is leading us to a realization of what the job means to the individual. In his article, "The Iron Man and the Job," appearing in the Atlantic Monthly, Arthur Pond cites as evidence of this, the following:

"His (the industrial worker's) defense of his job, his reaction against the invader who comes between him and his job, is as instant as his defense of his life, his home, or his woman." The job is the measure of his social fitness, of his standing in the community; by it the common man rises and by it he falls."

To the professional worker, however, even perhaps more, if possible, than to the industrial worker, the daily occupation is almost life itself. Of his material concerns, at any rate, it is the most vital. At least one-third or perhaps one-half of his time is given to it; his social life tends to build itself around his daily work; his very identity is derived from it, as instanced in the fact that in our present society our titles such as "Doctor," "Judge," "Professor," "Colonel," and the like, are based on occupation. In our daily work is our social usefulness; its quality is a gauge of our morality, as Carlyle implies in his "Past and Present,"—"Labor, wide as the earth, has its summit in heaven."

Although we order the circumstances of our lives according to our work, although we constantly speculate and decide and choose

in regard to our work, yet we tend to discourage the growing boy or girl from thinking on the problems of his life calling. This we do, no doubt, largely with good motive. We wish him to avoid premature specialization, to secure a broad general training. We fear, perhaps, that discussing vocational problems will attract him to work, and, of course, we wish to keep him at school. Thus we seem willing to have him come to these problems without preparation, on a sudden, confident that, despite his having built up no method or knowledge or philosophy by which to deal with them, he yet can solve them easily and wisely.

Yet all the while, despite our efforts to prevent him from anticipating the vital question of life-work, he is receiving guidance. In the life of every child some sort of vocational guidance is inevitable. When, some time ago, I asked my first year classes in the high school if they could recall any magazine advertisement which they had recently read on how to prepare for various occupations, I found that of 105 pupils, 45 were able to recall such advertisements immediately and definitely. Everywhere about them young people are receiving vocational suggestion. They are receiving it from "Boy Wanted" signs in store windows, from talks with working boys and girls, from the advice of parents, from family tradition, from the circumstances of their local environment, from their naive admiration of workers in occupations of glamorous appeal to youth. It is, then, not a question of whether or not boys and girls shall receive vocational guidance, but rather what sort of vocational guidance they shall receive. Shall it be the guidance of commercialized advertisements and accidental environment, or shall it be a systematic and honest guidance offered as part of the regular program of the high school?

Four chief means suggest themselves whereby we may incorporate vocational guidance in the working program of the ordinary general high school. First, we should attempt to spread among the pupils *vocational intelligence.*

The most thorough and effective medium for this would be the special life-career class, compulsory in the first year, elective in later years, always in its methods and exactions meeting the pre-

vailing standards of the school. If, however, objection would be raised to adding another subject to the already highly diversified and broadly expanded high school curriculum, why not give this intelligence in the English classes? All pupils take English. Furthermore, teachers and pupils frequently cast about for a subject which will unify and vitalize the composition work. Such a subject is found, to my thinking, in the systematic discussion of common occupations.

To have the occupational subjects form the basis of *both* oral and written composition even in a single year in the high school, would, I fear, crowd out all literary subjects, all occasional subjects, all imaginative subjects, and all narratives dealing with exciting ventures. To do this would be narrowing and devitalizing. Why not, then, have occupational topics the basis of the *oral* composition throughout, say, two years of English study? An important incidental advantage of the oral work would be the opportunity which teachers and listening pupils would have to correct on the spot the inevitable misconceptions concerning occupations.

In what year of English might this appropriately be begun? I should say in the first year, while we have the pupil with us, for there is great chance of his dropping out. Furthermore, the first year program in English in most high schools gives a much larger place to oral composition than does the program in any other year. Sufficient oral work and discussion of occupational subjects to sustain the pupil's interest should be carried on sporadically in second and third year English. A final brief but mature consideration of occupatoins should come in the early part of the fourth year in English.

Although the English teacher cannot probably be an expert in occupational information, he can, through reports of vocational surveys, bulletins, text books, and broad observation, supplemented by the knowledge gained from students' investigations, acquire sufficient knowledge for practical class purposes. If the high school has an expert vocational counsellor, that person can present to the English teacher all leading material necessary for knowl-

edge of changing conditions. Information, however, is not the paramount aim, but rather the development of insight, standards, breadth of view, and methods of evaluation.

In this oral work the teacher should, of course, begin with the child's own interests. Children might well choose at the beginning of the year five or six occupations which interest them most. These should be simply the occupations which interest them, and not by any means occupations at which they might think they were aiming. Thus the study should be begun objectively, and certainly at the beginning should not arouse self-analysis. Boys might first investigate, for example, the job of baseball player or fireman. At any rate the occupations first investigated by the pupils should be the occupations which are near them and which strongly attract their attention.

The students may gather their material largely from observation, from the reading of helpful magazines, and particularly from what they glean from their friends who are already in the occupation. A few text-books on the subject have already been written; that called "Vocational Civics," by Giles, is especially comprehensive, lucid, and readable from the point of view of the high school boy or girl.

The pupil should discuss frankly the duties of each occupation, the requirements, the advantages and the disadvantages to society and to the individual, the remuneration, the opportunities for advancement, the probable future of the occupation, and like subjects. Stenography, for example, was presented by my first year pupils in English this year under the following heads:

(a) The daily work of the stenographer.
(b) The pleasant and unpleasant sides of a stenographer's life.
(c) The various uses of stenography.
(d) Stenography thirty years ago and now.
(e) How my friend got a good position as a stenographer.
(f) How my friend prepared for stenography.

(g) Which high school subjects would best prepare a pupil for stenography?

(h) A particularly successful stenographer.

(i) Advice of a stenographer.

(j) The qualities of health, temperament, and character that a good stenographer should have.

(k) First mistakes of a stenographer.

(l) How a stenographer's efficiency is judged.

(m) Is stenography a routine job?

(n) Can you get ahead in stenography?

(o) The stenographer in business for himself.

(p) Magazines helpful to a stenographer.

Pupils would always find much interest and enlightenment in visits to industry and in listening to informal talks offered by friends or graduates of the school. They would be much interested in investigating unfamiliar phases of well known occupations. I have known high school pupils to view court stenography as a novel ramification of stenography. Pupils would be interested in investigating new lines of work that are in process of development, especially such as may be found in their own locality. Confining the consideration of occupations to those in the student's community, however, is an obvious error when we realize, as Ayres has shown, that "in a study of thirteen-year-old boys in seventy-eight cities, only one-half were found to be living in the city of their birth, and of the fathers, only one in six."

The study of occupations in the English classes, however, will ultimately mean much more to the pupils than the acquiring of information. In discussion led by the teacher they will acquire an incisive and protecting philosophy of life-work. They will realize the aims of work in general and the satisfactions one may gain from one's life-work. They will learn to weigh a job in the light of its social value, its effect on body, mind and character, its security, its future. They will build up in this way standards for properly evaluating an occupational opportunity. They will

gain some elementary understanding of the more common industrial problems and in this way will be laying a foundation for adult intelligence in judging the industrial questions which confront every citizen. They will begin to think concretely and constructively on getting a future job, getting along with fellow-workers and the boss, advancing in a job, reading the trade papers; on the problems of *dress,* qualities making for success, and the relation of school to work. With enlarged vocational outlook will come enlarged social sympathies. Thus they will gradually be developing, even in most rudimentary form, an all-round vocational intelligence invaluable to them as individuals and as members of society.

The first vocational function of the high school—that of spreading vocational intelligence—is an objective and group process. As I have outlined it, it would form a part of the regular English work of the school. The second vocational function, however, would be a subjective and individual process. It would consist in providing the child with as many try-out vocational experiences as possible. These would be experiences which in some definite degree would parallel the actual working experiences of life. Having provided these experiences, this second function of vocational guidance would aim to make them yield the student as much enlightenment as possible on his individual occupational proclivities.

This second function cannot now be *fully* offered, perhaps, to every member of the school. It will to some extent be incidental. It will have to be carried out largely by the vocational expert in the school, or at least closely supervised by him. It will reap its benefits partly in his regular personal conferences with pupils.

Its application will be very practical. A girl in the senior class, for example, feels an inclination toward library work. She has studied that occupation in the English class, and has systematically observed library work outside. She might well be placed in responsible charge of the school library for a short time. She would take full charge of the technique of library management, would aid pupils in their investigations, would maintain proper

order, would seek to accomplish desirable improvements,—in a word, would have to perform as many of the duties of the professional librarian as the school library could provide. She would, of course, be under the direction of the regular school librarian. This practical experience would give her untold insight into professional library work, and the insight would be made truly scientific and educational through regular conferences with the vocational adviser.

Such experiences could be provided along various lines. Boys could take over certain responsibilities in repair work in the school or in regular janitor service, such as cleaning, lighting and heating. Girls could take over certain secretarial responsibilities in the school office, duties at the lunch counter, such as buying, cooking, and cashier work, or certain minor responsibilities of the teacher.

Such try-out experiences come in larger numbers naturally in the regular outside activities of the school. The school orchestra should be run in such a way that each player realizes something of the demands made on the professional musician. Being a debater, being an actor in the school play, an editor of the school paper, a business manager of the paper, treasurer of a school class, an athlete on a school team,—each of these has its possibilities of vocational try-out and enlightenment. From all this the pupil probably will get more insight into himself, but, if he does not, he will surely get a more sympathetic understanding of occupational life.

The application of this second vocational function to the pupil's summer work, afternoon work and Saturday work, is unlimited. Likewise, it has its application in class; the chemistry teacher, for instance, can give much appropriate experience to the boy who thinks he might like to become a chemist.

In practical arts classes, however, are unlimited and highly realistic opportunities for self-discovery of taste and talent. Classes in practical arts offer especially easy and ample opportunities for try-out in the following occupations, listed by Dr. Brewer in his article, "The Need for Try-out Courses in the

Junior High School," appearing in the March, 1922, issue of Industrial Arts Magazine:

Occupations for Men.

Gardener	Bricklayer
Printer	Painter
Plumber	Glazier
Tinsmith	Shoemaker
Electrician	Carpenter
Baker	Cabinetmaker
Blacksmith	Draftsman
Machinist	Bookkeeper
Tailor	Clerk

Occupations for Women.

Dressmaker	Bookkeeper
Milliner	Clerk
Telephone operator	Housekeeper
Saleswoman	Servant
Stenographer	Laundress

Waitress

In the same article Dr. Brewer offers the following plan regarding the use of the general shop for purposes of try-out:

"Expert teachers are not at all needed to supervise all the elementary efforts of children in the simple processes of a number of occupations. If we provide separate shops, however, as may be done in the large junior high school, an inevitable tendency will show itself, the tendency toward too great specialization and a form of workmanship which approaches too closely to our processes of actual vocational education. It may be found, therefore, that the try-out plan will work better in the shop which combines provision for a number of varied exercises. A child may bring into such a room a dilapidated baby-buggy, and, turning in succession from one bench to another, or from one set of tools to another, he may straighten the axle on an anvil, shape out a sheet-metal clasp, put a wire spoke into a wheel, replace

a rubber tire, patch a broken piece of leather, repair a wooden handle, and apply a coat of paint. A corner of such a room may be partitioned off with glass for a small print-shop, and a large table or set of tables may be provided for the drawing and figuring necessary in connection with the projects. A number of teachers, some of them of very limited occupational experience, have done excellent work in directing diversified activities, and for junior high school children perhaps such experiences are fully as good as a plan arranged with more elaborate equipment and more definite periods of try-out."

Having given the student the fundamental vocational information and philosophy, and having aided him in self-discovery through diverse practical vocational experiences in school and outside of school, the high school might logically, as a third function, actually place the boy in a suitable position. Thus placement would seem to be the third function of the system of vocational guidance in the high school.

This function I advocate to a moderate degree. Since the aim of vocational guidance is self-guidance, care must be taken that placement shall not restrict the pupil's free choice. Yet extensive placement may well be developed, especially if there be but one high school in the city. The principal and a few active teachers could do much toward bringing about such co-operation between the school and business establishments that the high school would become the chief source of junior labor supply in the city. The pupils who were not intending to enter an advanced educational institution might well receive appropriate counsel and placement upon leaving the high school.

In most cities, however, including those with but one high school, there are other private or public employment agencies. If in large cities each high school should have its own separate placement bureau, there would be vast duplication of placement machinery. Such duplication is not only needlessly costly, but makes for a separation according to which one bureau hears of one position and develops a certain clientele among employers, while another bureau hears of another position and has a different

clientele. Effective placement can be accomplished only through the pooling of labor supply and demand in one central office, of which the placement bureaus in the various high schools would be the adjuncts.

To this end the placement bureaus of the public schools should all be a part of a central bureau to which, by reason of satisfaction with the school product, the majority of the city's business interests would turn. Such a bureau would make for equality of opportunity in finding a job.

The fourth function of guidance in the high school does not need to wait upon the third. Whether or not the school places its graduates or drop-out students, it can at least maintain an advisory follow-up system, which function, to my mind, is second in importance only to the first function, the dissemination of vocational intelligence. Most high schools follow the records of their pupils who have entered advanced institutions of learning. This they do largely as a check upon themselves. Partly for the same reason, the high school should follow its former students into commercial and industrial pursuits. Principally, however, the high school should do this follow-up work to aid the pupil in his vocational adjustment and to urge him to continue his education. Such follow-up should not, of course, be compulsory, but purely advisory.

Vocational adjustment for many pupils is a slow, discouraging and costly process. Much is said about bridging the gap between the elementary and the high school, but little is said about bridging the gap between high school and vocational life. The expert vocational counselor of the school, with one or two sympathetic and well-experienced teachers, can do much to aid a young worker in judicious decision on all the new problems which he will meet in his first two or three years of life work. Thus the former pupil will have some aid in deciding when to leave the job and when to remain, how better to get along with his boss and his fellow workers, what to improve upon and what to strive for ahead.

Especially will the pupil gain from this fourth function valuable advice on continuing his education. What inestimable opportunities has a young worker in Boston, for example, to continue his high school education without any gap, by attendance two or three evenings each week at such institutions as the Franklin Union, the Wentworth Institute, the Young Men's Catholic or the Young Men's Christian Association! What a pity that each high school does not point out to its former students the relationship between such study and their individual daily work

The advisory follow-up work would fall mainly to the lot of the vocational counselor—the educational and industrial co-ordinator of the school—who would make the vocational guidance of the school truly personal. Such an officer of the school might conduct classes in vocational intelligence; he would certainly aid the conducting of such classes. In frequent personal conference with pupils he would help them to analyze their individual interests, to interpret their try-out experiences, to readjust themselves throughout their school course and in the years immediately following. He would maintain cumulative records, preferably begun in the elementary school, of the student's marks, evidences of strong interests or definite abilities, the results of medical tests, and any definite comments on outside environment. He would visit home and place of employment; he would confer with parent and employer. A man of comprehensive vocational information, broad experience in life, and flexible, human personality, he would insure to the individual appropriate application of the four functions of vocational guidance which I have suggested for the high school,—vocational intelligence, try-out, placement, and follow-up.

Why Study English?

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Part II.

Why Study Literature?

WE must realize at the beginning that literature and life are intimately related. We cannot ignore either without neglecting the other. The world is awaking to the fact that a man should think farther than he can see. Civilization now demands that illiteracy be considered a disgrace; not only the comparatively infrequent illiteracy of extreme ignorance, but also that milder form which is synonymous with insensibility to literature. Business men are recognizing the value of English literature in practical life. "Most young people have few ideas because they do not read much," complains one prominent firm, and another advises "an extensive reading course for all students." Prominent technical schools are beginning to realize that Technology is only a part of the larger entity of which Literature is the written record. "We do not ask our students to be ashamed of being engineers, but we do ask them to be ashamed of being one-sided, narrow engineers," states the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

We have come to see that "all true Literature is either the representation of life or the expression of conclusions about life"[1]; in short that *Literature is reflected Life.* Lacking imagination we may not consider it so vivid as actual life, but it is more attractive in several ways. Real life is often unavoidably forced upon us; that in Literature is ours to accept or reject. If we are to gain experience at first hand, we must rub against reality; in a

1 The Importance of the Study of Literature in the High School, by M. E. Dungan. Education, 36: 437.

good book this same reality is presented in a milder form without contaminating contact. Moreover, the irrelevant details which too often obscure the main issues of our daily life are omitted in Literature. Furthermore, the process of learning life through reading should always be pleasant and uplifting, for after all the chief manner in which Literature is superior to life is that it "is better written and shorter."[1] We can summarize these advantages in a three-fold statement : *Literature is entertaining, instructive and inspiring.*

From the beginning of language itself man has always enjoyed Literature whether spoken, written or sung. Especially is it natural for us to delight in poetry. "The history of medieval society, to say nothing of all primitive societies, proves this."[2] Even a child is born with this instinctive love which often overcomes convention and later affords its owner unalloyed pleasure of a rare type; indeed,

" 'Twere well with most, if books, that could engage
Their childhood, pleased them at a riper age."[3]

When this taste is smothered by sordid living and uninspiring environment, the laws of nature are broken, for "to be incapable of a feeling of poetry . . . is to be without love of human nature and reverence for God."[4] *"To love the poets is a certificate of manhood*, a proof that one has put forth his powers and appropriated the means of life, that one is on the way at least to be humanized."[5] If cultivated and cherished, this affection for good books will do more for its possessor out in the world than all the other pleasures of life. It will afford him an interest which, when youthful dreams are faded, will be stronger than ever, which will more than recompense him for the loss of other good things, and which will last him throughout his life. "I have sought repose everywhere," said an old writer, "and I have found it only in a little corner with a little book,"[6] and our own Washington Irving

1 Editorial, New Republic, Feb. 6, 1915.
2 See The Teaching of English in England. The Atlantic Monthly Press.
3 W. Cooper.
4 William Wordsworth.
5 The Appreciation of Literature, Geo. E. Woodberry. Baker Taylor Co.
6 St. Francis de Sales.

put the matter conclusively in his statement, "When all that is worldly turns to dross around us, books alone retain their steady value."

All books, however, are not good literature. The moral influence which reading always exercises may be demoralizing as well as noble. "It is dangerous to have any intercourse or dealing with small authors"[1] "When one considers how reading seeps in through all the cracks and crannies of our days, what power there is in books to determine our views of life, . . . it is plain that the quality of a man's reading is one of his foremost responsibilities."[2] We should employ discretion in our selection; "we should choose books as we do companions."[3] Usually those works which have stood the destructive effect of time are most worth our while, for after all there is no such thing as a stale book. In fact we can agree with Hazlitt that a book unread is forever new and with Thomas Carlyle that "no book that will not improve by repeated readings deserves to be read at all." Bulwer-Lytton tells us to "select by preference in Science the newest books; in Literature, the oldest." Particularly should we be guided in our choice by the realization that scholarliness is measured not so much by the quantity of reading as by the quality and the care employed in the process.

The great literature of the world has been created in a vision, has been born of a soul's passion, has sprung forth out of some intimate faith or sorrow.[4] "No literature has ever vitally moved the world which does not manifest this note of heart-searching experience . . . no people have ever produced really good, enduring literary writing save when their soul has been alive with strong purpose or elated with high achievement."[5] "*At its best Literature is friendly and intimate.* It is not for holidays only and occasions of state; it is for everyday use. It is not for the wise and the learned only but for all sorts and conditions of men . . . *It has its message for everyone,* old and young, rich and poor,

1 W. S. Landor.
2 H. E. Fosdick in The Ladies' Home Journal, Jan., 1923.
3 C. C. Colton.
4 Literature and Life, by Father Cuthbert. Catholic World, 101: 99.
5 Literature and Life, by Father Cuthbert. Catholic World, 101: 99.

educated and ignorant; and it is supreme only as it succeeds in widening its invitation to include us all."[1] If we recognize this, we shall experience no difficulty in selecting wisely.

Literature to be enjoyable need not be formidable or of great depth. The pleasure which children old and young derive from the simple fairy tales of Andersen is as truly appreciation of Literature as the scholar's learned exegesis of Revelations. One who really derives full measure from what he reads causes it to reflect the unique personal character of his own thought. *For complete enjoyment of a book we demand above all that we find ourselves somehow in it.* There must be something in common between the reader and the author, some identical unknown quantity.[2] We may see the realization of our dreams in *Aladdin and the Magic Lamp*; we may satisfy our perennial yearning for adventure in *Treasure Island*; we may dream again the nightmares of our imaginative youth in Poe's *Tales*; and we shall be sure to sympathize with the hero of *Les Miserables* for in many respects his experience is ours. If the book is thus in some way a mirror to us, we ask only one more thing of it—intelligibility. With these requirements satisfied, enjoyment is inevitable, unless, of course, there may be one of us who has been deprived of his birthright, who finds no joy in reading at all, and he indeed, as Shakespeare says, "Hath not fed of the dainties that are bred of a book; . . . his intellect is not replenished; he is only an animal, only sensible in the duller parts."

"Far more seemly were it for thee to have thy study full of books, than thy purse full of money,"[3] for Literature does much more than afford idle enjoyment; it enlightens us in many ways. It guides us into unsuspected fields of thought where exploration is a pleasure and where new delights are met around each bending of the way; it teaches us human nature so that we may know better how we differ from those who have preceded us and in what way we are inferior to our contemporaries; it brings back to us the life of other ages so vividly that, under the spell of its enchant-

1 Approaches to Literature in Lectures on Literature, by Columbia Professors.
2 Basis of Literature—Dial, May 16, 1905.
3 John Lyly.

ment, we feel that we have in truth travelled thither with Phra the Phoenician or the Connecticut Yankee themselves. In short as a result of these diversions it confers on us its greatest boon: unconsciously it teaches us to think deeply and to think justly. If we enter into partnership with Literature we can say with Bacon that we have taken all knowledge as our province.

All great Literature has in it two elements, the contemporary and the eternal.[1] On the one hand, Shakespeare and Pope tell us what Englishmen were like at the beginning of the 18th century. On the other hand they tell us what all men are like in all countries at all times. Literature should be read in connection with History: just as those who teach History should always use Literature for purposes of illustration. Each helps the other. There is no History in which Puritanism lives as it lives in *Paradise Lost* and *The Pilgrim's Progress.* Reading then is a retrospection and an inspiration to further reading itself.[2] There is an invitation on every page to digress. Every good book with which we become acquainted tempts us on and on into other countries and other ages. In a moment's time, suiting our heart's caprice, we desert England for India, we flash from modern times to the era of the Pharoahs. We become so engrossed in a tale that we feel we must make further acquaintance with the interesting author, and often his other works lead us far aside into different environments. In historical fiction we find some character with whom we become so friendly that we are obliged to trace his adventures through the pages of various books. Sometimes a strange word strikes our eye and its mere meaning, when we find it, opens up to us such an enticing panorma of strange country or unfamiliar period that perhaps we are inspired to journey thither. Countless volumes wait to picture to us the adventure, excitement and jollity of one age, and the persecution, intolerance and sorrow of another. We have but to ask and we shall receive. We cannot pick up the most evanescent piece of fiction but that there will be opened to us windows looking out on some forgotten field of activity, on some custom of civilization different from our own. "All that mankind

1 See The Teaching of English in England.
2 Koopman—Mastery of Books.

has done, thought, gained or been; it is lying as in magic preservation in the pages of books. In books lies the soul of the whole Past Time; the articulate audible voice of the Past, which the body and the material substance of it have altogether vanished like a dream."[1]

Literature brings us in touch with great personalities, past and present, for it "is essentially a personal work; it is not some production or result attained by the partnership of several people."[2] We shall find the Caesars of ancient Rome, the minstrels of Medieval Europe, the great sea captains of Tudor England, all ready at our convenience and command to tell their story of martial glory, adventuresome love, and piratical impatience. "Consider what you have in the smallest chosen library," suggests Emerson, "A company of the wisest and the wittiest men that could be picked out of all civil countries in a thousand years, have set in best order the results of their learnings and wisdom. . . . The thought which they did not uncover to their bosom friends is here written out in transparent words to us, the strangers of another age." *Literature* is the revelation of the innermost soul of a people.

The vital test of the character of a man and of an age is to inquire what they hold most valuable, most worth while in life; if we apply this to the centuries through Literature, the answer will be a revelation. All of them since the first syllable of recorded thought stand ready to answer and by so doing lay bare their individuality to us that we may judge them and at the same time ourselves.

Literature lifts us above our daily existence, and above our own age so that we have a bird's-eye view of life from the beginning till now. With all the knowledge of all the ages stretched before us, we begin to see things more clearly. From our inspiring height we can, perchance, glimpse the glory of what has been called the common-place.[3] With our greater perspective the little things take on their true relationship and change from monotonous, inevitable parts of existence to bright patches of meaning and

1 Thomas Carlyle.
2 Idea of a University—Cardinal Newman.
3 What Can Literature Do for Me—C. Alphonson Smith. Doubleday.

enlightenment. We learn to see the difference between reality and convention, between truth and falsehood, and we are often impelled by our vision to great action. Thus we begin to see more logically and with less prejudice.

The mere process of reading calls on all the better faculties of the human mind. "Reading," said Addison, "is to the mind what exercise is to the body. As by the one health is preserved, strengthened, and invigorated; by the other, virtue (which is health of mind) is kept alive, cherished and confirmed." The very fact that we may disagree radically, nay, even be incensed by something in our reading, serves to bring forward all our faculties and stimulates the mind by the opposition it creates. The attempt, successful or not, to offer arguments against something with which we do not agree, sets in motion parts of our mental machinery which may have grown rusty through disuse. Most important of all, we cannot answer or suggest arguments and we cannot recognize a specious proof unless we are grounded in the world-wide consensus of opinion.

We shall find also, seated on this literary Parnassus, that we view things with more imagination and with deeper sympathy. It is by sympathy and imagination that "one enters into the lives and fortunes of others."[1] Insensible indeed is he who cannot feel the bond tighten through the years as the pages point out that this man or woman possessed similar ideas and felt the conviction of them so strongly that persecution and even death were suffered for their sakes. When, in some other human being, long since gone to his eternal rest, we come across that very weakness which has steadily rankled in our own bosom, we needs must accept the indisputable truth that man is brother to man forever and forever. We are all dreamers; if we only possess force to carry out our dreams, the purpose of life will be fulfilled. Literature helps us here.

> "Dreams, books are each a world; and books, we know,
> Are a substantial world, both pure and good:
> Round these, with tendrils strong as flesh and blood,
> Our pastime and our happiness will grow."[2]

1 Appreciation of Literature—G. E. Woodberry.
2 William Wordsworth.

Literature encourages us with the realization that others have dreamed dreams which have materialized into fulfillment; and what man has done man can do. If we permit it, Literature will develop both the intellectual and the emotional sides of our natures, for "In all genuine Literature these two elements are combined."[1]

But the real value of our reading lies not so much in the thought it tells us as in the thought it gives rise to in us, and in the inspiration toward better living which it affords and which it offers in many forms. It may hold before us an ideal toward which we shall strive, and never attaining, shall be urged to braver efforts and bigger conquests for its accomplishment. Or it may help us to contrast ourselves with the great characters of the past so that we are filled with a humility that destroys debasing pride and futile selfishness. Furthermore, Literature is always propaganda: it has done more than any other force to bring about worthy reforms, to show up hypocrisy, to remove superstition, to raise the standard of Society. It is always a prophecy: with its fingers on the pulse of Progress, it stands ready to warn us of the very beginnings of great movements and of vast, invisible changes. It offers us an opportunity to foresee "great issues in a vital manner through the eyes of those gifted with profound insight."[2] Finally, Literature wields a unifying influence which is infinitely beyond measure, for the Literature of a nation is its family record. It embodies the history of its travail, the record of its glory, the inspiration of its growth. If we, its children, carry on the great tradition of its majesty, our race may grow closer together and our children's grandchildren may reap the benefit of a compact, a loyal and an enduring union in which culture and common life are not so uncomfortably separated as they are to-day.

In conclusion, then, Literature entertains, instructs, inspires us. Lost in a sordid desert is he who lacks the taste for good reading; and fortunate indeed is he who possesses it and the means and opportunity of gratifying it. Put into a man's hands

1 College Teaching, by Paul Klapper—World Book Co.
2 Vital Study of Literature—Educational Review, March, 1919.

a good collection of books and "you place him in contact with the best society in every period of History, with the wisest, the wittiest, the tenderest, the bravest and the purest characters who have adorned humanity. You make him a citizen of all the ages. The world has been created for him."[1] When we completely realize the full significance of Kipling's wonderful words, we shall at last appreciate the real value of Literature: "A bare half-hundred words," he said, "breathed upon by some man in his agony, or in his exultation, or in his idleness, ten generations ago, can still lead a whole nation into and out of captivity, can open to us the doors of three worlds, or stir us so intolerably that we can scarcely abide to look at our own souls."[2]

1 Sir John Herschel—quoted by Eugene Field in Love Affairs of a Bibliomaniac.
2 Quoted in Harper's, August, 1906.

The Puzzled Chickadee

Early each morning a chickadee
  Flies to the dining-room windowsill;
'Lights—little black head a-tip—while we
  Sit watching him peck with that tiny bill
The seeds I have put there, and bread (a good deal),—
While within, we eat toast and eggs and oatmeal.

After he's finished, he peeps all around;
  Often he sings, "Chick-a-dee-dee-dee";
It's cold outdoors and there's snow on the ground,
  And this is what always seems queer to me,—
When he peeks in and sees Mother's tulips in bloom,—
Does he think it is Summer there in the room?

Katherine Sawen Oakes,
Lancaster, N. H.

The Passing of Apprenticeship

A. W. Forbes, Worcester, Mass.

IT is generally conceded that the old fashioned apprenticeship is disappearing. Some say that it is already gone, but that is an error. It is still possible to obtain the real old fashioned apprenticeship in a number of occupations, with but few modifications. The formal contract binding the apprentice has been generally given up, so that it is possible for the boy to leave at any time that he feels dissatisfied. There has also been a substantial increase in the pay offered, but that should not be a deterrent. In spite of the added attractions the number of boys seeking such training is constantly decreasing, with results that seriously threaten the industries. This is particularly apparent in the case of the building trades in which the standards of quality and quantity of work have declined to such an extent that the facts are subject for everyday comment. And this decline has been accompanied by a large increase in wages. The facts of the decline are so evident to any one who has had any repair work done in his house, that they need no proof.

An attempt has been made to substitute trade schools for apprenticeship, with results anything but satisfactory. On theoretical grounds it might be thought that a trade school could give a better trade education than the industry itself. It may be possible, but results so far do not bear out the supposition. I think I agree with the large majority of manufacturers who have tried trade school graduates, in saying that the movement is a failure. There are certain difficulties that a school has which prevent it from giving the best training. One is that it must necessarily be largely routine, and it is not possible to give the individual guidance that is given the apprentice. There is a much greater tendency for the pupil in a school to become merely a unit than in an industry. Another difficulty in the school is the lack of a positive incentive.

Marks cannot take the place of advancement to better positions and higher wages.

We come down to the fact that unless apprenticeship is restored, or something that has not yet been discovered substituted, all-round skilled American workers will soon be a thing of the past.

But why the disappearance of apprenticeship? There must be a cause. Some employers do not offer opportunities, but there are plenty that do. Possibly the fact that some do not has been advertised so extensively by social workers and the like that they have convinced the public that all are in this class. A personal experience will illustrate the present situation.

We manufacture electric motors in Worcester, Mass., a city of 180,000 population, and we are the only manufacturers of electric motors within a distance of 25 miles. Electricity is a field that appeals to many, and in addition we do considerable experimental work which has an appeal to those above the average in intelligence. Yet a full-page illustrated article in our only local Sunday paper, in which the reporter did full justice to the opportunities to learn a trade or more advanced work with us, and in which it was distinctly stated that we were ready to take on a few more boys, produced but three inquiries Monday morning, and a few more later in the week. It is evidently a lack of apprentices rather than a lack of opportunities.

At the same time that apprenticeship has been disappearing, the age of leaving school for work has been increasing. Can there be any connection between these two facts? I think there is. I do not know whether there is any record of the customary age at which apprentices started their work at various periods in the world's history. At least if there is, I have not found it, but am inclined to think that the age of 12 years has been above rather than below the average. At the present time Massachusetts laws do not allow boys to start in any occupation except farming before their 14th birthday, and the laws do not distinguish between apprenticeship and other kinds of work. A number of occupations cannot be started before the boy is 16 or 18 years of age. Even when the law permits the boy to start

work, the schools, which have been influencing the boy's mind for a number of years, discourage it, so that those who would ordinarily make the best apprentices do not start for several years later.

The relationship between the age of starting work and the progress made in the work is not a thoroughly studied subject. It is generally assumed by educators that a boy staying in school till he is perhaps 18 years of age will make more rapid progress when he enters an industry than one starting at 12 or 14. Psychological tests show that the older boy can learn faster, he has reached a maturity that offers opportunities that are refused to the younger boys, and he does not meet the obstacles which lack of physical strength puts in the way of young boys. I think it is true that he advances faster, but not as thoroughly.

Many of the large industries put their employees in comparatively limited fields. Even in the higher positions it is possible to get along without the all-around experience that the small shop requires. I worked in the engineering department of a large company, figuring windings and specifying dimensions of punchings and slots for the windings. But while doing this I had no idea of the way these punchings were fastened into the frame. Yet I think I had a better knowledge of the related facts than the majority in the office. A broader experience would be of value in these large industries, and they realize the fact, but they are able to get along without it.

In a small shop doing a large variety of skilled work, like mine, the situation is very different. I have given up trying to do anything with those who do not start shop work before their sixteenth birthday. The older boys could do everything that the younger ones do, but they don't. This is not an invariable rule, and if a particularly promising older boy should apply for a chance to learn the work, I should take him on, but in general the younger boys are the ones for the all-around training.

Possibly the mere fact that the younger boys see the limitations which nature has imposed upon them, makes them more ready to make the most of what they have. Possibly it is because the

older boys see others of their own age doing man's work and receiving man's pay, and that this makes them reluctant to spend the times necessary for an all-around experience. They will spend the time in school, but that is the style. When they go to work, they feel that the time has arrived to have a good position, not to prepare for one. Possibly it is the social life that changes so much with the average boy between the ages of 16 and 20.

But whatever the cause, it seems to be difficult if not impossible to have apprenticeship unless the boys start early. It is useless to find fault with the inclinations of the boys in this direction. It is human nature and must be recognized and accepted as such. If apprenticeship is to be successful it must start well before the 16th year, and I am inclined to say that 12 years is none too young. This period between 12 and 16 years is recognized by psychologists as an important period. It is important for general culture, but also for learning the skilled trades.

The injurious effects of our laws are particularly apparent in the building trades, where minors are practically prohibited in Massachusetts until they are 16 years of age. But the effects are there in the other industries even if not to so great an extent. It is rapidly approaching the condition where becoming a thoroughly trained all-around tradesman will be prohibited.

I said above that the period of 12 to 16 years of age was also an important period for general culture. How do our present laws meet this? Our Massachusetts laws require that all boys at regular work under 16 years of age, should attend continuation school at least four hours per week. But they also specify that a boy who is learning a trade in the industries should spend at least half of his school time at this trade. Even when the boy prefers cultural subjects in the high school, and when the school is ready to take him in, the state prohibits this as a substitute for the vocational study, and to take both makes such an irregular schedule that it interferes with most any kind of work.

I see no reason why the apprentice in a machine shop or other skilled trade should not also study English literature, Mathematics, Latin and Greek, History, Science and other subjects

that go to make up a liberal education. But our laws are not satisfied with making it impossible for a boy to obtain his vocational training at the age when he should have it. They also put obstacles in the way of his obtaining his cultural training after he has started his vocation.

There are a number of ways in which apprenticeship could be combined with cultural training. The alternate week system has certain advantages, and is satisfactory in some cases, but has also some disadvantages. In the class-room it breaks up the continuity of the course, making it necessary to spend the first of each week in review or in getting started again. But on the other hand it is a question if this break and review is not more successful in making a permanent impression on the mind than would be the case if the class work was continuous. In the industries there is often more serious objection, for we cannot give skilled work to a boy unless we can be reasonably certain that he will be able to work on it continuously till it is finished.

For responsible shop work it might be better to use the alternate periods of three months each, as used by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. In agriculture the part of the year when there is but little farm work could be used to advantage by the school. Other systems might be arranged to advantage.

One thing is certain. We cannot restore apprenticeship by trying to put across any one system. If employers are not satisfied they will stop engaging apprentices as so many have done and employ foreign labor instead. This seems to be what some reformers want. Whatever is done it must be elastic enough to fit the requirments of the various industries, and at the same time provide as good a cultural training as is consistent with the occupation.

But while developing an adequate system of education, it would seem that our present crude and rigid laws are a serious menace and should be relaxed.

American Notes—Editorial

In more than one sense of the word the *atmosphere* of a schoolroom is potent for good or for evil. Every modern school architect gives careful attention to the problems of heating, lighting and ventilating. He knows that pure air, of the right temperature, and evenly distributed light so admitted as to strike the pupils' books rather than their eyes, will materially contribute to their health, good order and scholarship. Neglect of these problems produces a poor building, in which good work will be the exception and good order next to impossible. It is the poorest policy in the world to hire good teachers at modern, adequate salaries, and then place them in conditions where even the best teaching abilities cannot produce even commonplace results. We know of a specific case, which is by no means uncommon enough to be called exceptional, where a pupil of at least average ability was required to sit for hours at a time in school where a hot blast from the furnace below continuously struck him, and with a window directly in front of him from which the dazzling rays of sunlight fell across his desk for a considerable portion of the time. When the year closed this boy's parents were informed that he had not "passed," but would have to take the year's work over again,—under the same conditions. In this case the parents investigated, discovered where the responsibility lay, hired a tutor for a short time in the summer to help the child along, and sent him to another school in the autumn, without sacrificing a grade; and in the new environment he did well and got entirely over "just hating" to go to school. The moral is self-evident.

But there is another sense of the word "atmosphere" which must be carefully reckoned with in the classroom. In this case the teacher is in the spotlight for observation, and, it may be, for criticism. There is a mental and spiritual atmosphere as well as a material and physical one, in every schoolroom; and usually the master or mistress of the room is largely responsible for its character. Personality counts tremendously, here. We have known of schoolrooms where good order was conspicuous for its absence; where flagrant offenses were daily and almost hourly in evidence; where tasks were set, merely to be scorned or neglected; where noise and confusion precluded any real study or teaching, and where one had to raise his voice to a high pitch to make himself understood at all.

Sometimes a different teacher is given charge of such a room, and immediately order and attention ensue. Apparently no particular

effort has been made by the new teacher to produce this result. It is a result that follows from an *atmosphere* created by a genuine, frank, earnest personality that takes boys and girls at their proper valuation and manifests a real interest in them and their problems, almost or quite without effort. Can this kind of personality be cultivated? We believe that it can and should be, by every person, male or female, who purposes to enter upon the work of teaching.

As a rule, we are inclined to believe that a sincere *optimism* on the part of the teacher is the most potent instrumentality for bringing good order out of chaos in a disorderly classroom. Young people almost always like those who sympathize with them, get their viewpoint, recognize their good qualities, and trust them,—overlooking their deficiencies, with a view to their curing. Without hypocrisy, a true teacher can and will help a weak and misguided soul back into the pathway of rectitude and efficiency. This will be accomplished by seeking out good points in character and conduct and praising them, instead of searching for bad traits and trying to pull these out by the roots, regardless of the *hurt* of the process. Such a teacher establishes a footing which can be enlarged into a pathway, and ultimately into a highway to character and success. This is one of the greatest achievements of good teaching. Its starting point is in the personality of the teacher. To discover something that is good in the soul of a wayward pupil, to praise it and cherish it until the whole character is made over and purified and made efficient; this it is that constitutes the lure of the profession for a true man or woman. An ounce of praise is worth a ton of censure, any where and any time,—whether it proceeds from the parental throne, the preacher's pulpit, the orator's rostrum, or the teacher's platform. Oh, for a purified Press that should serve up daily a record of the good things that men and women have done and are doing, instead of the depressing, disheartening and disgusting catalog of woes and crimes that nauseate us and fill our souls with discouragement and despondency and despair!

We think that the following excerpts from a report on Child Labor and the Work of Mothers in the Beet Fields of Michigan, as summarized by the Department of Labor through the Children's Bureau, have a bearing in favor of the enactment of the Towner-Sterling Bill. At any rate, it is evident that something should be done to prevent such violations of basic principles embodied in the Constitution and public sentiment of these United States. The report states that in a district including part of three Michigan counties, believed to be

typical of the entire beet-growing sections of the Middle West, 67 per cent of the children between 6 and 16 were found at work in the sugar-beet fields. One-fourth of these child workers were less than 10 years of age, and only one-fifth had reached the age of 14 years. Three-fourths of the boys and three-fifths of the girls of these ages had helped in the beet fields in 1920, as had 70 per cent of their mothers.

Contract laborers are usually assigned as many acres on which to thin, hoe, and harvest the beets, at a fixed rate per acre, as they and their families together can take care of. Thinning is a process which must be done before the beet plants grow too large, and therefore is usually performed under pressure. The family working-day at this time was found to begin about 6 a. m., continuing with the shortest possible time for meals until 6, 7, and sometimes 8 or later in the evening. Over a fourth of the children reported 11 to 15 hours daily work in the fields. One father, a miner from West Virginia, who said that he had come to the beet-growing country because his children were too young to work in the mines but could help "in beets," had all four of his children at work in the fields, the oldest 12, the youngest only 5 years of age. Among the laborers' families, nine out of ten of the mothers having children under six years of age, worked in the fields, and practically half the children under this age were usually taken by their parents to the fields. The babies were sometimes kept in boxes or baskets, without shelter of any kind. Only half of the young children who were left at home were cared for by adults. A few were cared for by brothers or sisters less than seven years old, and some had no caretakers in the house. The mothers worked long hours in the fields and did housework in addition.

The sugar companies usually rented old farmhouses for their workers, or furnished small portable houses, which too frequently were crowded, and sometimes were in bad repair. In many of the beet-field families from three to ten persons were obliged to sleep in one small, illy-ventilated room. Occasionally a shack of tar-paper or tin, or a caravan-wagon to be moved about as the work required, was the only shelter provided. These wagons furnished such cramped quarters that, as one child told the agent, the family "has to take turns going in, as there isn't room for all of us at once." Three-fourths of the children of school age included in the study had been absent from school on account of their work, according to statements of their parents.

All of our readers have probably heard more or less about Hampton Institute, at Hampton, Virginia. Perhaps few, however, realize the greatness of the work that is being done there in educating the Colored People and Indians of the United States for useful, honorable and happy lives. We have recently received a twenty-six page typewritten statement, setting forth the Aims, Methods and Results of Hampton Institute, prepared by William Anthony Aery, publication agent of the Institute. It makes most interesting educational reading, and is a splendid tribute to the founders, the faculty and the students (past and present) of this great school. If there is ever a "race-conflict" in the United States, it will not be Hampton Institute's fault. It has transformed thousands of human beings who would otherwise have been left to grow up in idleness and ignorance; making them, instead, into happy, healthy, busy and useful citizens. Promptness, alertness, self-control, endurance, and respect for authority are taught to some five hundred negro and Indian boys at Hampton, annually. Over eight hundred of the Hampton graduates and students fought valiantly in the World War. Girls and women also are trained in domestic art and science and citizenship. Hampton represents the very highest ideals of American altruism. We admire and applaud Hampton Faculties and Hampton Students and Graduates, unreservedly.

American young men who look forward to careers as ambassadors, foreign ministers, or other representatives of their government abroad, may now be trained for such a career, according to an announcement by New York University that scholarships have been established by the late Ambassador Frederic Courtland Penfield, and are now operative and will be awarded to candidates whose qualifications best indicate a fitness for careers in the foreign service.

Ambassador Penfield died last summer, after a long career in the diplomatic service. His experiences taught him that there is a need for the trained diplomat. This realization found expression in his will, in a bequest of $80,000 to New York University for the founding of what will be known as the "Penfield Scholarships" for training American youth "in diplomacy, international affairs and belles-lettres." Two of the scholarships, for $1,000 each, will be awarded to applicants holding the master's degree from an approved college or university, who plan to devote their entire time to study during the academic year 1923-24. There will be two others of an annual value of $800, three of $500, and several minor scholarships. Applicants should communicate with Dean Earle B. Babcock of the Graduate School of New York University, 100 Washington Square East, New York City, giving him a statement of their academic preparation.

Book Reviews

GENERAL SCIENCE, WITH EXPERIMENTAL AND PROJECT STUDIES. By Garfield A. Bowden, B. S., Head of the Department of Sciences, University School, Cincinnati, Ohio. 334 illustrations. Philadelphia; P. Blakiston's Sons & Company, Publishers.

The purpose of this book is to secure to young men and women, through their Science course, an adequate knowledge of life in its fundamental principles and activities. The chapters deal with man's life in particular, and its adjustment to natural law, so that man shall secure the materials and comforts of life. The conditions necessary for life and growth and how to improve them by means of intelligent selection and direction are carefully considered,—both facts and principles being brought out into the field of consciousness through concrete examples, the study proceeding, step by step, with a definite use of the project-method, whereby the student is made to work out definite problems and gain a vision of Nature's established order.

We do not remember to have ever seen a book on elementary science which was at once so comprehensive, so simple and clear, and at the same time so fundamental, as this one. If a given student is to go on through College and to specialize in some specific *branch* of Science, he will be well grounded if he has had a course in High School with this as his text book. If, on the other hand, he is intending to go no farther in scholastic specialization, he will have obtained a knowledge which will be of inestimable value to him throughout life, making him intelligently interested in his practical relations with life, in the home, in business, and as a unit in the community life of mankind, wherever he may find his lot to be cast.

This book is well made, on heavy paper, with admirable illustrations in abundance, and a durable and attractive binding.

HORTICULTURE FOR SCHOOLS. By A. V. Stubenrauch, Milo N. Wood and Charles J. Booth. Macmillan Company. In the Rural Text-Book Series.

The subject-matter in this book may be covered in one school year of three periods a week for recitation and two double periods in laboratory work. Project exercises are recommended as of great value in teaching principles and practical business methods. The chapters are progressively arranged and the book is attractively illustrated. An excellent text from every point of view.

THE NEW PSYCHOLOGY AND THE TEACHER. By H. Crichton Miller. Published by Thomas Seltzer, 5 West 50th St., New York, N. Y.

The reviewer has a psychological laboratory at home, as probably nearly every reader of EDUCATION has,—either at home or at school. Parents and teachers are "up against" the problems here considered; and we can heartily advise them to secure this volume. It studies the psychology of boys and girls in a thorough, yet simple and common-sense manner that makes the chapters as interesting as a novel to one who is encountering, more or less blindly, the many and significant problems involved in educational development and guidance of boys and girls through their "teens." We fully recognize the saneness of this author, and his qualifications for aiding parents and teachers in their immensely important work of guiding,—through understanding and sympathy,—the development of the boys and girls who are to be the men and women of tomorrow.

SAMUEL TRAIN DUTTON. A Biography. By Charles H. Levermore. The Macmillan Company. Illustrated.

A worthy memorial of a distinguished educator,—one who as child, youth and man, consistently made good and proved to himself and all onlookers that life is worth living. Teachers will be inspired with a new respect for their calling by reading this biography. Students of educational history should not pass by the story of his life. In it is seen unfolding the great modern romance of human comprehension of the mission of the schools and the development of a scientific pedagogy. Mr. Dutton was of Maine stock, a graduate of Yale, superintendent of schools at New Haven, Ct., Brookline, Mass., Professor of School Administration at Columbia University, and Superintendent of the Horace Mann School. His influence was nation-wide. His development and achievements are an object-lesson on the value and possibilities of a New England type of genuine democracy.

ROGET'S THESAURUS. A Complete Book of Synonyms and Antonyms. By C. O. Sylvester Mawson, Litt. D., Ph. D. Thomas Y. Crowell Company. $3.00 net.

A book that needs no encomiums, after standing so long as an authority in a field all its own. No person who lays any claim to scholarship and who uses the English language, either written or spoken, in public, should be without a book of the same nature as this one; and no one should be content without the *best*. It helps one to *think*, as well as to *speak* correctly and effectively. The present edition is admirably arranged and equipped with cross-references and indexes.

A SCHOOL IN ACTION. Data on Children, Artists and Teachers. A Symposium. With an Introduction by F. M. McMurry. E. P. Dutton & Company.

This is a volume that will prove of exceptional interest alike to educators and parents. It gives a carefully particular account of a school established in the summer of 1917 at Peterborough, N. H., by Mrs. Arthur Johnson, who had long felt that the long summer vacation caused a break in the educational process which was detrimental to children, making necessary several weeks of special work in the schools, at the beginning of another school year in the autumn, to reconnect with the long-suspended lessons and regain habits of attention and concentrated study. The services of able educators were obtained and a schoolhouse was built on a height beside the mountains, on an estate of six hundred acres. Sessions were held from nine a. m. to half-past twelve, with a special curriculum, differing materially from that ordinarily found in public schools. The results were most interesting and valuable. They should be carefully noted and studied by parents and educators everywhere.

SIMPLE CONSTRUCTION WORK IN PAPER AND CARDBOARD. By Lincoln P. Goodhue, Principal of Holden School, Chicago. Teachers' edition, $1.00. Library edition, $1.25. Ideal School Supply Company.

A most interesting and practical volume, with carefully drawn plates and detailed directions for making such things as children should learn and love to make out of paper and cardboard. The instructions are notably clear, and principles or art and technique are kept in view. The use of this book promotes a real education of mind, taste and handicraft.

PHYSICS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS. By Frederick E. Sears. F. M. Ambrose and Company, New York and Boston.

A well printed and illustrated text book in Physics, comprising 658 pages, including Appendix and Index. The aim has been to produce a book that would at once serve the purposes of a text for those who were to complete their study of Physics in the school courses, and for those who intended to follow this elementary work with further study in college. As the general aim of both is the same, the authors have felt that the book could be so made and arranged as to furnish an adequate foundation, with suggestions and "leads" that would stimulate interest and open avenues for more extensive research, the common physical facts and principles appearing and underlying both fields. We are impressed with the thoroughness of the chapters and believe that the subject has been so covered that teachers of Physics will find this one of the most satisfactory manuals now on the market.

PRINCIPLES OF THE NEW ECONOMICS. By Lionel D. Edie (Professor in Colgate University). Edited by Seba Eldridge (University of Kansas). Thomas Y. Crowell Company. Price $2.75 net.

This volume presents the old and the new economic principles, showing that which is true and permanent in the old, and revealing its inadequacy where it was erroneous or insufficient; and supplementing it with the new economic thought and practice which the new age has supplied. The work is divided into three parts, Economic psychology, Economic institutions and functions, and Economic adaptation. The method is explanatory rather than critical or controversial.

RACINE'S GREEK MASTERPIECES, Iphigenie, Andromaque, and Phedre, by Jean Racine. Edited by James D. Bruner, Ph.D., Litt.D. (Carson and Newman College). Boston, Richard G. Badger, The Gorham Press.

A very well bound and attractive edition, for students and general readers. There is a full and interesting Introduction, adequate footnotes and an extensive vocabulary. Cloth, 385 pages.

EXERCISE BOOK IN ALGEBRA. By Oswald Tower (Phillips Academy, Andover). This book is a revision of a long-time successful Exercise Book in Algebra by the late Prof. Matthew S. McCurdy. The revision has been done in order that the book may be adapted to the changes in school and college courses and the consequent new requirements of college entrance boards. There are eliminations and re-arrangements, and many new simple exercises have been introduced. The book is of convenient size to slip into a student's pocket. There are 180 clearly printed pages. D. C. Heath Company, publishers.

INTRODUCTION TO PLANE ANALYTICAL GEOMETRY AND DIFFERENTIAL CALCULUS. By Clifford Newton Mills, B.S., M.A. 95 illustrations. P. Blakiston's Son & Co.

Presents a semester's work for college freshman classes. Presupposes a knowledge of elementary Algebra and Plane Trigonometry. A new definition of Maximum and Minimum values of a function is given. There are many examples to be worked out, each aiming to give the student a clear understanding of the principles involved.

SEWING MACHINES. By Rosamond C. Cook. The Manual Arts Press. Price $1.25.

An admirable little manual, published to show how the sewing machine may be more effectively and easily used in Domestic Science classes and in the home.

ANALYSIS OF THE INTERCHURCH WORLD MOVEMENT REPORT ON THE STEEL STRIKE. By Marshall Olds, et ali. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A large volume, giving an *ex-parte* consideration to a subject that certainly concerns the public,—but which is so complicated, involving so many technical details, and so difficult to verify, save at an enormous expenditure of time, effort and money,—that most busy people are hardly in a position to make a conclusive judgment upon it. It is not denied that it is important to have an opinion on a subject affecting the public welfare as this one does. Once getting interested in it one should certainly read this volume; also whatever can be found upon the other side. The whole, big question at issue between Employers and Workers is involved; both claim "judgment!" No doubt a book like this, made possible by the unlimited resources of the great organization that has brought it out, will make a deep impression upon a certain class of readers. Others will hesitate to accept conclusions which they cannot disprove, but which they nevertheless instinctively question, while they wait for further experience and light.

WE AND OUR GOVERNMENT. By Jeremiah Whipple Jenks and Rufus Daniel Smith. Donald F. Stewart, Editor. The American Viewpoint Society (Boni & Liveright, Inc.), New York.

We have seen no book which so effectively teaches "Americanism" as this. A copy of it placed in the hands of every child, native and foreign, in the United States, would, in our opinion, set forward education, law and order, and true patriotism more rapidly and permanently than any other agency, outside of the public schools, that has been tried and that is still at work. It presents to the eye public documents, buildings, people, industries, inventions, achievements, in living pictures that appeal to the mind, the emotions, and the will. These pictures are accompanied by brief, pointed descriptions that "he who runs may read." Everything is intensely American. The volume is soon to be followed by another book, called "We and Our Work." Millions of copies of these books should be circulated. Here is true education for millions of our people, young and old, better and more wholesome by far than the "movies."

THE GEOGRAPHY OF NEW ENGLAND. By Philip Emerson, Principal of Central Junior High School, Lynn, Mass. The Macmillan Co.

A most interesting, clear, comprehensive presentation of the geography of one of the most interesting and highly developed, as well as historic portions of the United States. An excellent text book for intensive study of a rich, influential and historic center of civilization.

OUR YEAR BOOK. Elementary Department, Ethical Culture School, New York.

The pupils of the above-named school composed this magazine, to show what children of elementary school age could do, and to express their appreciation of the work of Felix Adler, the founder and leader of the school. The book is beautifully printed and bound, and is a credit to its authors and to the school and its distinguished founder. The children consulted with their teachers and the proofs were read for the spelling only. The contributions are real children's contributions, and show that they have been really educated in habits of thinking, choosing and expression. There are poems, stories, anecdotes, experiences, appreciations of books, pictures, architecture, travel, scenery, occupations, etc. It is plain that these children have been taught to observe, to think, to judge for themselves. The book demonstrates most effectively the value of the plan and principles upon which this school bases its admirable work.

LYCURGUS. The Speech Against Leocrates. Edited by A. Petrie, M. A., Cambridge. At the University Press. In America by The Macmillan Company.

A Greek text, with helpful analysis, life and public services of Lycurgus, and a chapter on Lycurgus as an Orator, etc. The Notes are particularly full and illuminating.

A BOOK OF CHORUSES FOR HIGH SCHOOLS AND CHORAL SOCIETIES. Edited by George Whitefield Chadwick, Osborne McConathy, Edward Bailey Birge and W. Otto Miessner. Silver, Burdett & Company.

A collection of choruses particularly adapted for use in high schools, normal schools, and colleges. The artistic standard is high and the collection is comprehensive. The volume is very complete and deserves an extensive market.

THE EXPERT TYPIST. By Clarence C. Smith. The Macmillan Company.

A book for those who have already learned to use the typewriter but who desire to become experts. Careful instruction is given, based on experience and knowledge of the best methods. Fully illustrated.

PROGRESSIVE PROBLEMS IN BOOKKEEPING AND ACCOUNTANCY. By William R. Hayward and Isaac Price. The Macmillan Company.

Furnishes properly graded and well organized drills and exercises that will be welcomed by teachers and useful to students.

EDUCATION

Devoted to the Science, Art, Philosophy and Literature of Education

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The Psychology of Music

JOSEPHINE WEATHERLY, KIDDER, MO.

INTRODUCTION.

ONCE upon a time the genius of spiritual man appeared before Jupiter and prayed:

"Father, give to man a better speech than he now has, so that he may express his sorrow, his joy, his love."

"Have I not given him the voice, the sigh, the tear?"

"None of these can express all the emotions that come to man."

"Well, then, replied Jupiter, "I will give him the best gift of the Gods—*Music,* which he may use while upon earth; but which he must bring with him when he finally returns to the Unmeasured Life."

And from that time on the human heart can speak.[1]

EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES.

The purpose of education is to form habits, give knowledge, set up ideals, develop tastes and attitudes, and give the emotions a sane outlet. In this broad sense it is cultural as well as practical; and it is under this definition that music in the public schools is held to be legitimate.

The fallacy of our present scheme of education is that music is

1. Jean Paul Richter.

only for the people of leisure—of means. We follow such educators as Herbert Spencer, the McMurrays, Bagley, Bobbitt and others who believe in training for leisure for all the children of the land.

"That music plays an important part in the life of a people and should, therefore, have an important part in education has been understood by the foremost educators for 3,000 years. Among a practical, industrial and commercial people,, like ourselves, good music is necessary not only for enjoyment and recreation but also for inspiration and salvation from death in the din and dust of trade. This music should be democratic in the truest and best sense. This it can never be until it becomes an integral part of the education given in the schools of all the grades as it is in Germany, for instance, where every teacher must be able to sing, and play either the violin or organ, and where every child in the Volksschule learns to sing and play; and as it was in the best age of Grecian culture. It is through a clear understanding of this fact that music has been introduced into the schools of many cities and towns. Sooner or later, we shall not only recognize its cultural value but we shall also understand that after reading, writing and arithmetic, music has greater practical value than any other school subject."[2]

"It is probable that a sort of music teaching that would give intelligent appreciation ought to find a place in a complete musical-educational scheme."[3]

"An appreciation of good music, whether as auditor or producer, is desirable. Education should therefore make as great contribution to the development of a wide-spread musical appreciation as practicable and should enter abundantly into the general life of the school."[4]

"Music is one of the best sources of inspiration to a higher adjustment of life; but that it may reach its highest influence, we must develop the ability to use its language; for music, like speech, is only powerful as it becomes the common possession of all.[5]

2. P. P. Claxton, U. S. Commissioner of Education.
3. H. G. Wells, from "Mankind in the Making."
4. Franklin Bobbitt in "Curriculum Making in Los Angeles."
5. Hethrington in "Music in the Schools."

"We need music for our leisure as we do vocations for bread winning, and both are the business of our public schools.[6]

"Would that our schools paid as much attention to music as they do to the natural sciences. Although science is my field, I believe that all is well with the man who has been systematically taught to weave music into his daily affairs, and who can always hear the fitful strains of winds that out of Dreamland blow."[7]

Who does not recall Darwin's pathetic lament. "The loss of this taste (music, to which he paid considerable attention in youth) is a loss of happiness. My moral character was enfeebled by this loss of the emotional part of my life. No honors that have ever come to me will ever make up to me for this irreparable loss."

"Every American child should start out in life pretty well equipped to speak and to understand the universal language of the heart. As an asset for sane living it beats Greek, Latin, French and German all to pieces."[8]

"Music is no longer a luxury but a necessity. Its rhymthic beat and its seductive melody surpass the cup of coffee or tea, the pipe or even the sedative and narcotic affects of deadly drugs.[9]

"The National Government is doing everything in its power to raise horses, cattle, pigs, chickens, grain and fruits. Are boys and girls less valuable commodity than clean hogs? Is it not worth while to put music into our schools to help fight the human pests, the animal passions that infect our young people, as it is to fight fruit pests?"[10]

Democritus affirmed that diseases could be cured by the melodious sounds of a flute. And Aesclepiades employed the blare of trumpets twenty centuries ago to cure sciatica even as today in sanatoriums and insane asylums music is used to soothe violent patients very much as David exorcised the evil spirit out of Saul with his harp arpeggios. The psychology of this is simple. All life is in the form of vibrations and music is simply rhythmic

6. President Burk of the San Francisco Normal School.
7. David Star Jordan of the Leland-Stanford University.
8. David Frohman, the noted theatrical manager.
9. Dr. Harvey W. Wiley, American Sanitarian.
10. Dr. Charles Farwell Edson.

vibrations that set into like harmonious rhythm the disturbed vibrations of the human organism commonly called disease.[11]

"I firmly believe that the world's ills, mental as well as physical will one day be cured by the scientific used of music. Psychologically, no other agency in the world can do it like music can. I wish our schools would see to it that we *inoculate* our young people through music. We would not have them fall victims, so easily, to diseased bodies and minds!"

"One of the great joys of my long life was that I had music all the way—in my boyhood, in school, in social activities, in my married life, and I wish that the band might play at my funeral. The parent who denies music to his child is handicapping him in his life work. Start the child young, with a tin horn, a drum, a comb with tissue paper. We take pains to teach him a language that leads to *one* people. Let us give him *music* that leads to all hearts and unlocks his own!"[12]

Origin of Music.

What is the origin of Music, its development and its psychology?

In general, it may be said that music is an old experience of the race. It has always been more or less mystical but, at present, we have subjected it to the analyses of the psychologist and are beginning to understand its laws and principles.

Man in primitive times received his education from the activities of his home, his tribe, his religious rites and ceremonies. These were simple, consisting of the means of self-preservation, of procreation, of propitiating gods, of warring with neighboring tribes and of satisfying his animal passions. Then through the long, slow struggle upward, man's surroundings took on a newer aspect and he longed to express himself in higher feelings than the instinctive drives of necessity.

Music arose in the race out of man's joyous response to rhythm, tone and melody of the world of sound in nature about him. The swaying of the branches, the whispering of the leaves, the lapping of the waves, the singing of the birds, the lowing of the cattle, the

11. Charles Brodie Patterson, Editor of "Arena."
12. Charles Heber Clark (Max Alder).

sighing of the wind, all, all were rhythmic as well as tuneful and melodic; but man, at first, responded only to rhythm.

"In the dim past man's psychic life was different from what it now is; feeling, instinct and impulse were all and they were common to all.

Music is the speech of this antique, half-buried racial soul. Darwin thought that it came from love-calls. Spencer thought that it was the tone-colored accompaniment of speech. But it is older than language, as Weissman, Boaz, Gaultman say. While musical capacity is latent in all primitive races, (and in children as they enact the race experiences) birds, which evolved before man, had this art. So did animals and insects, first of all creatures to emerge from the primeval sea. Indeed, we can stretch it to encompass all acoustic expressions; the wind, the rain, thunder, sea are the oldest musicians. If we wish we can go still farther and say that vibrations and impacts are as old as matter, heat, light or even atoms and electrons.

All energy is rhymthmic and cadenced, so that what Plato called the music of the spheres is not fantasy but science.

To all these influences protoplasm, which is the vital product of all cosmic elements, responded from the first for it is the material soul of all, long before a special sense was developed for it.

Thus, the man has shed many of his old responses, the human ear is the result of a longer developmental process which has made it the most specialized organ of response that man has.[13]

"Thus in Music man may today dimly revive the most ancient elements and experiences in the history of his soul. If heredity is cell memory, the aesthetic response to music is the awakening of echoes far older than the earliest acoustic organs and in his process a man remembers the earliest as well as also the subsequent stages of his evolution. It is the art of arts because most prehumanistic and also most prophetic of the hereafterman who shall again return to the cosmic from which he came.

Marlo Pilo (Psychologieder Music) says it utters the essence of

13. G. Stanley Hall, from a speech delivered before the National Music Teachers' Association,

things; best explains the world, is the chief interpreter of religion, and it propounds and answers the ultimate problems of life.

Schopenhauer says, "Music is the last word of the highest philosophy and the revealer of ultimate metaphysical being of the will and soul."

German Aestheticians say that music expresses all the cosmic emotions, utters every potential as well as every actual feeling; that its kingdom is not of the present only but also of the past and future world. It utters all longings.[14]

Among savages and children music, as a form of behavior, has several distinct origins.

"The primitive warrior struck his spear on his shield. Later the drummer sat apart and beat rhythms for the dancers. These rhythms gave nervous shocks which brought rhythmic reactions.[15]

"Rhythm is the first of primitive music—tum-tum origin. Its chief features are cadences and repetitions. It is a system of beats, accents, stresses, stepping, patting, tapping and striking.[16]

"As rhythm became complex there came a natural demand for differentiated sounds. Drum sticks of different lengths produced different pitches. This is not wholly sensory but a complex form of reaction or behavior. Heart-beats, respiration, tension of voluntary muscles, contractions and relaxations of hand, arm and trunk are the bodily reactions. Even rude rhythm arouses desire to beat time or to vocalize."[17]

"The child, who begins by rhythmically striking one object with another or by keeping tab of successive sounds, who checks off his fingers as he learns to count, hums or vocalizes a tone over-and over, perhaps slowly evolving and intricating it, or learns to beat time, march, sway or gesture, has begun to ascend the long way by which the race began its musical development."[18]

Music thus is evolved from within. It is subjective in that it appeals to that which is inherent and hence gives pleasure as to all instinctive expressions.

14. G. Stanley Hall, from speech delivered before the National Music Teachers' Association.
15. Charles H. Judd, from "Psychology of the High School Subjects."
16 G. Stanley Hall.
17. Charles H. Judd, "Psychology of High School Subjects."
18. G. Stanley Hall, Address delivered before National Association of Music Teachers.

It is also peculiar in its tribal development. Some peoples use 2, 3, 5 or 7 tones in the musical scale. Some sing in the minor key, the key of sadness and heartache, while others use the major key of joy and courage.

The scale of a people becomes conventionalized from use so that the people may adapt themselves more readily to change of food or clothing of another people than to their music!

This may be that as music is the language of the emotions, and as emotions are common to all peoples, it is no need to change music as it is, basically, common to all peoples.

Not only is music explained, psychologically through its rhythm as influencing behavior, but it has fixed relations to the intellect and to the emotions.

By emotions we mean those humanistic, complex feelings that are aroused in man by contemplation of the beautiful, as shown by the heaving bosom, the flushed cheek, the glistening eye, the erect posture, the uplifted brow when in the presence, of the restless sea, the majestic mountains, the glorious sunset, or when listening to Dvorak's World Symphony, Milton's Comus, or when contemplating Raphael's Sistine Madonna or the ravishing sculptured form of Venus de Milo, and not those lower feelings that man has in common with the lower animals.

Emotions, if we must define them to educators before they will admit that music has a function in molding lives of children, are those complex combined mental and physical activities of the human organism which follow, as stated above, upon intellectual appreciation of the beautiful as opposed to the purely functional derangements of the system that come from nervous shocks.

"All higher emotions of man, though affecting the body are connected with the intellect.[19]

"Emotions are awakened through the medium of the intellect acted upon by sensations through the neural processes. Only intelligent creatures can be emotional, accordingly."[20]

[The idiot never weeps or laughs; neither does the brute.]

19. "Music as related to the Emotions and the Intellect."
20. "Music and the Emotions."

Sound is the human ear. It is the vibrations of air waves impinging on the typmpanum and the fibers of Cortis tell the brain that various voices, instruments of different tones and pitches, have been performing. When we listen to music each hearer has sounds only in his own head, purely subjective "Music is the most subjective of all arts."[21]

Out of the many sounds of various pitches which could be produced by the human voice, mankind, long ago, began to select and arrange some in a definite order. Scientific law of music was thus developed out of man's generalizations and the result is a musical scale which is merely differentiated music from mere mechanical noise.

"The construction of scales and of harmonic tissue is a product of artistic invention."[22]

Such nations as used singing to recite the prose stories of their heroes did not get the intellectual concept of rhythm so well refined as those who associated music and poetry. In time, song, dance and poetry were bound together by their mutual relations to the law of rhythm and emotional responses were the result. Then instruments were constructed to accompany song, poetry and the dance, and the concept became more intellectually emotional.

In time it was discovered that music all in one key lacked interest if protracted; so new tunes in new keys were introduced, and these developed into harmony; and these arranged in suites or movements gave us symphony. Then when instruments began to accompany voices Oratorio and Opera were born. Thus it is seen that music has a musical notation or language that has an intellectual development which makes of it a science as well as an art, while at the same time the emotions are aroused by the rhythm, sound and combinations of sound that are instinctive and sensuous. Thus music stands the test of the intellect and of the instincts of man.

In short to listen to music, to appreciate it requires sensation, emotion, aesthetic feeling and intellect. What other school subject can justly claim as much?

21. Hegel.
22. Helmholtz.

Music in the Life of the Child.

Music study to be productive of the greatest amount of development must be begun early, when the mind is alert and receptive when the emotions are on "tap", so to speak, when the sensations are standing on tip-toe of expectancy and when the muscles of hand and throat are pliable so they can be acted upon by mind; for in reality it is the brain that sings and plays rather than the fingers or the vocal cords. Expression in music is manifestly but the outward sensuous side of an inward mental conception of melody, rhythm and harmony. Before there can be any expression there must be impression; that is, a certain state of thought and emotion to express form. Hence, a mastery of the psychology of mind and the knowledge of the physiological organs of response must be in possession of a successful teacher of music.

The child enters spontaneously into musical activities of all kinds. He runs, skips, hops, dances; he vocalizes; be blows with his mouth, drums with his fingers and picks tones out of everything he touches. Even a baby makes bodily responses to music. Our richest gems of music are the lullabies of all nations. The best the school can do when the child comes to it is to recognize these joyous, innate responses and fix them by judicious exercises. Perhaps the contrast between these crude, semi-barbaric activities of the child and the finished product of the musician might lead us to imagine that they are not worth cultivating. The contrast is not in the psychological origin but in the developed skills and tastes in the tools or symbols and in the forms of music and this we can do for him. Though the child's activities are crude they yet contain all the psychological potentialities for an adult's symphony and oratorio.

In 1915 the report of the Secretary of the Interior showed that there were 22,000,000 children in the first grades. By the time these children are 12 years old only one half of them is left. What the school is to do for them must, therefore, be done early. What is more, if the child's latent, potential rhythmic and auditory faculties are not cultivated at this early stage, the chances are that when he reaches adolesence they will be too much atrophied

or pushed into the background by the three R's that we so religiously and presently pound into him.[23]

"Music is as real a contribution to humanity as is the multiplication table."[24]

Why does a boy whistle when he is afraid? Why does the soldier sing the songs of homeland?

"Yea, by the rivers of Babylon we hanged our harps upon the willows and we sang and wept."[25]

Why does the housewife go about her work humming snatches of melodies?

Why not repeat the mutiplication table or have a spelling match. If we did, the school stunts people would set us down as *looney*; but everyone understands the psychology of the tune, the song and the melody.

In teaching we must bear two things in mind. *First*, that rhythm is *ordered* movement. It develops regularity of action in all of the vital functions. It is a healthy stimulus to children of a sluggish temperament. It corrects the spasmodic movements which lead to serious nervous disorders, such as fidgeting, stammering and St. Vitus dance. Subject to the laws of rhythm the vital forces flow in their normal channnels and that spells *health*.[26] *Second*, Rhythm is music to the muscular sense. Just as well-ordered tones are music to the ear and harmonious combinations of color are music to the eye so the rhythmic flow of movement is music to the nerves that control muscular actions. Who can doubt this as he notes the graceful movements of dancers. Best examples, Pavlova the world-renowned Russian artist.

"The Mother-Goose Melodies are the musical classics of childhood. They are the outgrowth of child experiences in past ages."[27]

At first the child's muscles move in mass, but by degrees they become differentiated.

The earliest stage of musical instruction is mainly receptive, hence the lullabies and songs should be very abundant, rhythmic

23. McPherson, Thomas, Music and the School.
24. Dr. E. A. Wiship, Editor of The Journal of Education.
25. Bible.
26. Dr. Harvey W. Wiley, eminent physician.
27. Mrs. Jessie Gaynor, composer of songs for children.

and somewhat melodic, but no harmony as yet. That calls for a complex concept. The hands are most under the child's control and these should be used in clapping loud on the accented beat. Next the feet may be made to keep time to the rhymthic beat. Then the tongue bugle is added to this. This co-ordination is a very valuable exercise. At first children will clap very hard, stamp the feet and yell the song. By practice these will tone down and become artistic and in time will react on the child's nature.

"Children learn to use the word language by listening and talking. In like manner they learn to use the language of melody by listening and singing, hence they should have daily exercises in singing songs suited to their vocal powers. It is easier for children to get the melody than the words, (psychology of this given earlier in this paper) therefore they should "*la la*" the music first and then gradually add the words. Although no technical voice exercise should be given little folks, let them bark like a dog, low like a cow, ba-a like a sheep etc. These will exercise the vocal organs. To get the whole range of the voice they may personate dogs of different sizes from the deep-toned large dog to the piping voice of the little pup; from the voice of the father ram to the cry of the little lamb.

The humming of bees, the rising and falling of the wind, the pealing of church-bells, or the humming of familiar tunes is to be on their own mouth organs. Devotion comes naturally to a child. Let them sound the bell which calls to church, then have all the mouth organs hum the music of the hymn."[28] Singing develops the social side of the child. He cannot work much in the modern home but he can sing with father, mother, sisters and brothers and his little playmates.

Morals can be conveyed in melody that would be considered forced if expressed in words alone. So also information. Call to mind the old-fashioned geography and spelling lessons intonated to rhythm.

A child's song, after the first few years should begin to introduce

28. Catherine A. Strouse, Teacher of Music in Primary Grade Train ng School, Kansas Normal.

much melody as against too much rhythm. In teaching a tune it is unfortunate that teachers depend on the piano so much. This makes the child dependent upon the instrument instead of upon his ear. Later also, he will run to the piano to see how a new selection goes, instead of reading it from the notes. See how inconsistent we are in our teaching of music. We do not teach reading of the vernacular that way. We do not put the reading lesson up to a machine and expect it to tell us what it is about. I know whereof I speak, I have seen hundreds of children read the melody of a new piece right from the staff without use of an instrument. Where our music teachers fail to do this they give the child no way to help himself in after years to broaden his musical repertoires. He will always depend on the artificial, mehanical piano, or get the selection by imitation after hearing some one else sing or play it.

An accompaniment to a song should not be given a child too soon. It contains the harmony, and, as we stated before, it requires a complex mental reaction to get it, of which, as yet, he is not capable. It also covers up the melody, the thing he *can* and *should* get.

Music helps in making the school a happier place for the child. He is *so* lonesome when he first comes to school. Words, numbers, books do not appeal to him. They are foreign, but music—ah, *that* he got from Mother Nature. Many a strange child will refuse to take part in the regular school exercises—but in music, no! He opens his mouth, claps his hands and is as good as any in the group.[29]

As schools are largely competitive, individualistic, full of rivalry and ambition from the first grade up, music will tend to restore normality, co-operation and general good fellowship. The psychology of that is the common emotional tone of music.

Children should be taught to sing all songs with a beautiful tone. Heartiness does not mean harshness. Loud singing is not good singing. Indeed, the psychology of it is bad for it has no aesthetic effect. The foot-ball yell has a place but do not call it music.

29. Marie Weatherly, Director of Public School Music, Kansas.

It is not the purpose of this paper to give the steps and the subject-matter that the schools should give in teaching music, but all authorities agree that it is just as essential to teach the symbols of music (notes, rests, bars, staff, signature of key and time,) so that children can read music, as it is to teach words, sentences and spelling so that children can read books. And what is more it is not a bit more difficult. Indeed, it is easier because the psychology of it gives us its basic factors, rhythm and melody, innate to man. *Imitation*, as in learning to *speak,* is the *key* to singing songs. Then teaching phrases or musical sentences is the next step. Just as in teaching reading we begin with the sentence and work backward and forward. The trouble is most teachers in music start with the dead mechanics of notes, staff etc. The time for such unpsychological pedagogy is past.

"Other nations sing because children are encouraged to sing at home. By imitation they follow mother in her songs as she goes about her housework and father as he goes about his fields. America must begin with her children if she wants to have a happy, musical appreciative adulthood."[30]

After this early stage of imitation, then, must come the mechanics necessary to master music and make of it an art. This should be the work of the grades, with abundant opportunity right along to live the experiential life of music in choruses, cantatas; singing on special occasions suitable music as on Christmas, Easter, Thanksgiving, Washington's Birthday, May Day, Arbor Day, Flag Day, Memorial Day, Fourth of July, Columbus Day and the birth days of musicians and poets and even the children's own birthdays.

The songs of the different nations and folk songs, negro melodies and patriotic songs ought to be the common property of all school-children.

"Folk songs are store-houses of most beautiful melodies and unfold to the mind the inner character of the different peoples."[31]

In cities where there are many foreign children this is a most powerful factor in Americanization. The psychology of this is, as

30. David Bachellor, an authority on music.
31. Robert Schumann, composer of over 600 songs.

we showed before, that emotions, common to all races, are fused into one through music; and since music is sung in American schools, it makes Americans of the little foreign children in feelings. And what is more they sing these *American* songs at home to foreign mothers and fathers, (again as shown before foreigners sing more about the homes than do Americans) and they too, respond to the common bond and American behavior is the result.

"Let one write the songs of a people and I care not who makes its laws,"[32] is psychologically sound.

Patrick, who had been in America but a short time, was very much taken with "Yankee Doodle." He learned the tune,—also something of its history. One day, on Broadway, the band was playing "Yankee Doodle" to *beat the band.* An Englishman met Patrick and asked what was that tune the band was playing.

"Begorra," said Pat, "that's the song with which *we* licked you British and sent you skeedaddling across the water with your lion's tail between your legs." "Yankee Doodle" had made an American of him![33]

Music in the Life of the Adolescent.

What has been emphasized of music in general, and in the development of the child, is basic to what music will be to the adolescent in the years of his high school. It is for that reason that so much time was taken in developing the subject.

The youth in the high school ought to be able to read at sight most songs of sentiment, nature and patriotism so as to be able to add to his already large repertoire of folk, national and home songs and hymns. Songs by Carrie Jacobs Bond, Mrs. H. H. H. Beach, Chadwick, De Koven, Page, Bullard, and lyrics of the masters, as found in Moore, Burns, Tennyson, Longfellow, Shakespeare and others ought now to be acquired. Where in after life, the boy and girl, grown to man and woman, will have occasion to *recite* one of these poems, or for that matter any poem learned in the English class, *once*, he and she have occasion to sing or whistle them a thousand times.

32. So oft repeated that the writer could not find the author.
33. Heard from a Chautauqua speaker—name forgotten.

The work here should also become broader and more comprehensive so as to include part songs, anthems, operas, oratorios together with choral work arranged for soprano, also tenor and bass. Then there will be class songs, play songs and much general assembly singing, so that by the time a pupil has gone through 12 years of school, beside having the definite ability or *power*, as we now call this, to pick out tunes for himself, he will have from 300 to 500 compositions, a repertoire large enough to sweeten his whole life and to act as a "*drive*" to attend concerts, operas, symphony orchestras, and to stand in with the cleanest people in the community.

It is the practice in most high schools to assemble for opening exercises. In schools where there are as many as 3,000, students think what an uplift and inspiration these pupils get from their singing! Every morning, five days a week, thirty-six weeks a year and twelve years for some! [And how we can understand what the old fashioned "*Singing Schules*" must have been to our grandparents.] Then add to this assembly singing orchestras, as is done in Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, etc.,—200 and 300 instruments—and the cultural, aesthetic and social influences thus created tax the imagination to conceive! If the music since first introduced by Lowell Mason in 1838 into the high schools could show nothing more than this volume of melody from 18,000,000 young hearts daily, it would be enough!

I once heard a teacher say she was glad to get the pupils after they had been singing. They were so wide-awake, mentally alert and socially inclined then.

"But we are sorry to note that both the purpose and the methods are not understood by those who have charge of the music work in schools. They are not prepared pedagogically and not fitted musically to undertake so important a work.

Appreciation rather than high proficiency in technical accomplishment is the large aim of music instruction.

Whatever knowledge has been gained in the grades should begin to function definitely in the lives of the adolescents.

If pupils are even to be interested in and appreciative of the

best in music we must give it to them now. This is necessary in order to articulate music of the school with the community life that the adolescent will soon enter.

Effect of music is realized in a peculiarly vital way when the individual takes part in it. Ensemble music, both vocal and instrumental, has thus a psychological value in the high school. A well-conducted glee club not only calls into play musical abilities but a certain co-operation with others—the social instinct, so strong in the youth, in working out a common purpose and a common ideal. It is thus truly democratic and fits our American ideals.

Shall those who do not sing well be allowed to be in choruses? By all means. One careless, indifferent performer may mar the beauty of the whole rendition. His appreciation of this fact teaches him a lesson of interdependence of social relationships and leads both to the joy of social solidarity, and also to a desire to improve so as to do his share of group work. Besides, the real psychological value is even more than the social value and the fact that the youth is whipped into improvement by the ideals of the social group; it lies in the big *fact* that the school and the chorus is where it is for the sake of the *individual* and *not* the individual there for the *sake* of the *school* and the chorus!

To take part in choral society of one's town; to play in the band or orchestra, to be one of an appreciative audience at concerts, to help with the church music, to add to the pleasure of your crowd at a party, and best of all to sing and play in the family circle—all of which our young people will soon be called upon to do—means happiness and enrichment of life, and is a direct challenge to the schools to prepare for this great humanizing task.

The study of the music of other times and other people gives us the key to the social life of those times and to those peoples.

Study of the lives and works of great composers as men of high ideals, broad culture and great achievements, broadens the pupils' interests and deepens their sympathies.

Musical performances, undoubtedly, bring together as many people as any one single agency. [The movies not even excepted

for the best part of a movie is the music. It *blends* the people together so that they see about the same things. If you do not believe this watch how the attention is broken and how restless, conscious and individualistic the crowd becomes, whenever the music stops.] What is the school doing to prepare the youth to be an intelligent and valuable addition to these gatherings? And to congregational church singing?

Complex sociological problems, short hours of work, and much, leisure are taken care of by music as by no other agency.

As a vocational subject music has great psychological value in the high school. Even as vocations call for efficiency so do musical vocations, because in each case efficiency is largely determined by the laws of attention, repetition, and the determination or "*set*" of mind to get on.

An army of persons is engaged as musicians in this country and $600,000,000 are spent annually on musical performances and in musical education. The number of high school graduates who go into music is comparable to the numbers that go into other occupations. Yet ample provisions are made for prevocational training in other lines, and only meager for music.

The state of Pennsylvania is making wonderful provisions for music. In most schools, instruments are taught to those showing talent.

Grand Rapids, Milwaukee, Chicago, Madison, Cincinnati and other cities are now falling in line and are paying big money to those who can handle work of this kind.[34]

[The city of Coffeyville, Kansas, population of 18,000, pays a man $3,300 for conducting the music of the high school, for supervising the grades and for looking after the community music which now consists of a big community chorus, 3 bands, a community orchestra. The city says it is the best investment it ever made.][35]

In many cities, also, the high school choruses, orchestras and bands are regular feeders for similar organizations in the town

34. Josephine Weatherly. I have attended their community *sings* and they *are* inspirational.
35. Wm. Earhart and Claxton in article U. S. B. of Ed., 1917, Vol. 49. This is a resume merely of a long article.

and for church choirs. See how that appeals to the adolescent who *feels* he is grown up? Isn't that psychology for you?

In many cities credit is given at school for music taken outside from a first class music teacher. Recently I heard a girl say, "I am the only one in my crowd who is keeping up her music. The others find their algebra and Latin too hard to permit out-side music." This ought not to be so. We are thoroughly familiar with the intellectual value of Latin and mathematics (although most pupils forget them as soon as the commencement dress is taken off). These same girls, who eventually will become wives and mothers, are not likely to discuss logarithms over the breakfast table; nor are they likely to spend the evening solving quadratic equations or hurling Greek roots at their husbands and children. But you will find them, if *properly* taught in music, [by properly I mean as much attention to music as is given to mathematics and the foreign languages] at the piano singing together and later on, the little ones that dream off into "Slumber Land" will do so to mother's "Hush, my Babe, Lie still and slumber" or to father's "Baby Mine" and not to dissertations on regular polygons.

Orchestras make a peculiar appeal to the adolescent. "He is more under domination of emotional than intellectual stimuli. He feels more than he knows and more than he dares to express in words. He is ripe for getting hold of things and letting things get hold of him."[36]

"He wants to be thrilled and to thrill others and he can get more meanness out of himself when he beats the bass drum or blows the cornet than if he worked a thousand algebraic equations or conjugated Latin verbs till doomsday."[37]

The youth is afraid of being accused of sentimentality if he goes in strong for singing so he gladly takes to an instrument. Here is an anecdote that fits in so well that the writer cannot resist the temptation of giving it.

"Bobby's father was an organist of repute, a calling for which Bobby felt a little apologetic when having occasion to explain it to his friends. A policeman, now, or a fireman, those are pro-

36. Smith in "Music and Life."
37. A. Weatherly, from a speech on "Value of Instruments in High School."

fessions a fellow can boast about! One day he was overheard in conversation with a boy who asked.

"Boy, does your father play?"

"Yes," admitted Bobby, without much enthusiasm.

"Well, what does he play,—the cornet?

"No," answered Bobby, half-heartedly, "He plays the organ."

"And does he sing, too!" persisted the chum.

"Goodness, no!" indignantly exclaimed the musician's son, "We wouldn't stand for that!"[38]

Work in an orchestra or band calls for sense of tune,—notice how particular musicians are in *tuning* up—sense of rhythm, come in at *exactly* the right time and with the correct modulation and some downright hard digging in order to read and to play good, *new* music from time to time. Team work is also a result not to be ignored in the life of the adolescent. It is "harmonious social behavior."[39]

Bobbitt and others advocate much chorus singing and the playing of musical instruments as modes of *moral* health—prophylactics—catharses.

We have shown before that one's mental and emotional states contribute to one's physical well-being so that the organism that is attuned to harmony is likely to be a sound organism physically. Music in the high school on this plea alone ought to be worth as much as athletics.

It is desirable to train our young people to be executants; but it is even of greater importance to train the ear, the eye and thus the mind to be perceptive of nice distinctions of time, melody and harmony and to form habits that will carry over into adult life. [Not transfer to some other field, but simply to "Carry On" into later years, work begun in youth.]

We call this a certain kind of appreciation which "does not depend on ability of performer but upon one's ability to follow as an auditor matter originated by another."[40] We show our appreciation by behavior of attention and emotional responses of

38. Harper's Magazine.
39. Judd—Psychology of High School Subjects.
40. Chas. H. Judd—"Psychology of High School Subjects."

various kinds mentioned earlier in this paper. This appreciation is a "mental process capable of training under direct guidance."[40] It comes through listening to much good music. But *listening* is a direct challenge to the intelligence for it takes all the mental alertness one has to get rhythm, melody, quality, ensemble, different media that voices and instruments have as they carry a selection from its opening chords to the big finale. This is the psychology of a selection as a whole in its effect on the listener.

"We hear the expression so often—'I have no ear for music.' Well, you would have if you had been trained to listen to music properly when young." An authority says only 2% of children are totally destitute of "ear;" but that the faculty of appreciating sounds and rhythm dies rapidly through neglect so that it is true when young people say 'I have no ear.' "[41]

"Music calls for more than the appreciation of a picture or a piece of sculpture for they are fixed for all time. We can stand and look as long as we please; but music is conditioned by time. It flashes past. We must be keen to catch each tone, because others follow right after and push the first along."[42]

In the last few years musical appreciation has made wonderful strides in our schools. Encouraged by the Notional Music Association and the availability of the phonograph and records our children are learning to know and to love Melba, Alma Gluck, John McCormack, Caruso, Anna Case, Galli Curci, Mischa Elman, Jan Kublik, Kreisler, Schumann-Heink, Gilmore and Sousa and hosts of other artists whose talent the world recognizes.

Then a list of fifty selections from the instrumental masters are being taught and examinations, from time to time, reveal the gratifying fact that thousands of children, as young as twelve years, recognize the selections and can name the author and that the boys whistle these classics and the girls call for them in records and in sheet music for home reproduction and so the good work goes on and in time, the whole lump will be leavened. Let us hope that, as time goes on and other selections are added to

41. Mrs. Dorritt Wilson—Music.
42. Read somewhere. Author and place not now remembered.

this list, "jazz" will be driven out from our midst, even as we hope by good speech appreciation to drive slang out of the English language.

Youth needs to hear music of great beauty and variety. Great things are not made mediocre but mediocrity gets what it can of greatness.[43]

Seashore on Musical Ability.[44]

Carl E. Seashore of Iowa State University has done a most wonderful piece of work in analyzing musical ability. This paper cannot do justice to the discussion in limited space and time. Suffice here to say that he has made psychological analysis of music both practical and scientific.

The tests require certain records, prepared by the Columbia Graphaphone Company; and other material by means of which an individual can find out definitely just how *much* and what *kind* of musical *ability* he possesses. Used diagnostically it warns the untalented youth so that he can save both time and money in not allowing himself to be persuaded by ambitious parents to study music. It likewise encourages the talented one to go on and make something of himself. It even helps the mediocre one by pointing out just what good points he has so that he, too, will get all that is coming to him from music.

It also has achievement values so that teachers and students may see what progress is being made from time to time because of training.

With the psychologist working on this great problem of musical instruction in our schools, the outlook is very hopeful for the future.

"When there is more music in the homes of America there will be fewer divorces. There is more domestic discord in the American home, more truancies, incorrigibles and unfaithfulness than in any other country on the globe and I believe it is because there is not enough cultivation of the finer things of life. The situation should lead Americans, especially those who measure life through the cash register, to a newer appreciation of music.[45]

43. Chas. H. Judd—Paraphrased. Psychology of High School Subjects.
44. Carl E. Seashore, Director of Music and Psychology, Iowa State University.
45. Walter Damrosch, Conductor of the New York Symphony.

SEASHORE TESTS BASED ON THE FOLLOWING CLASSIFICATION:

I. Attributes of Sound,
   - *a.* pitch
   - *b.* extensity.
   - *c.* intensity.
   - *d.* duration.

II. Recognized powers of the Mind.
   - *a.* rhythm.
   - b. timbre.
   - *c.* consonance.
   - *d.* pitch.

III. Musical Memory Imagination.
   - *a.* auditory.
   - *b.* motor.
   - *c.* creative.
   - *d.* memory span.
   - *e.* learning power.

IV. Musical intellect.
   - *a.* musical free association.
   - *b.* musical powers of application.
   - *c.* general intelligence.

V. Musical feeling.
   - *a.* musical taste.
   - *b.* emotional reaction to music.
   - *e.* emotional self-expression in music.

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Sensings and Realizations on Reading "The Great Stone Face"

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WHENEVER one approaches the color, characters, and opening events of a story one has a multitude of sensings and realizations,—so many, in fact, that could he record all those that are both vivid and remote during a period of five minutes, he might easily have material for a small volume of experience. Every reader has accustomed feelings during his moments of reading, without conscious reasons for them. These are called sensings. They may be developed from feelings that already exist, or, in the second place, from the influence of either story or teacher or both.

Perhaps the author is clever enough to make things exceedingly real for the reader in the opening paragraph. The range of his own imagination and visions, his power of making situations and experiences concrete, and the recurrence of things indicate definitely the number and intensity of the realizations the reader or listener will experience.

The following analysis of Hawthorne's "The Great Stone Face" will proceed to enumerate the sensings in two classifications and four variations of realizations which any one or more readers may record. Overlapping in these is frequent, and desirable and essential, in good instruction. At first, the pupil may approach the scene and characters of the story with a sense of unwillingness, resistance, and passive curiosity. Suddenly or slowly he may sense the attractive beauty of the landscape, the ease of style and delightful spirit of the author, the charm of the teacher's personality and interest in the tale,—realizations begin to grow, the door opens to a garden rich with spiritual treasures peculiar to a Hawthorne tale.

You may imagine me teaching a class of city boys many of whom have never seen a setting so beautiful as the author describes. I tell them something of my birthplace in the White Mountains, the old homestead, my mother and her beautiful stories that she told me during many watchful hours of the day and night years ago, the mountain panorama that circumscribed our mountain village, the precipitous mountains carved centuries ago and still lying in peaceful vigilance serenely robed in a summer sunset, azure through the haze of a summer sun, and sternly silhouetted in a sublime grandeur against an evening starlit sky. God may have hung out this great face on the mountain side to symbolize that he made great, silent men among the granite hills. At least Daniel Webster said so, and he may have been one of them himself. Here is the story of one even greater than he. Let us read it silently. Interest is aroused, and the class proceeds. We will presume that telepathically I am recording their sensings.

I. From feelings that already existed: (Many of these pupils have visited Franconia Notch and the Great Stone Face.) Familiarity, I seem to have seen such a place; confusion, in recalling the impressions and facts received during the visit; surprise, in finding at last that I have really visited that place; gladness, in the prospect of knowing more about it; satisfaction, on having discovered this story; distraction, in the noise outside the classroom; unfitness of things, reading such a story in the midst of city surroundings; humility, on comparing my own virtue with that of Ernest—(the last three are distracting); curiosity, as to the outcome of the story; unrest, because the story does not move faster (distracting); color, in the background of the story; time, in wondering just when Ernest lived; comradeship, with Ernest as the tale proceeds; personal weakness, as the interest of the story overwhelms me; omnipotence, of God as he moulded nature and human lives; fitness of things, in God's plan of elaborating nature to inspire mankind; glorification, in the marvels of God's work; weakness, of mere man; justice, of God in the promise of rewarding virtue; edification (self); method, of the author; moral, pointed to by the author; power of the spiritual over the material;

usefulness, of the moral elements of life in the development of mankind; magnitude, of the work of God; infinity, of time and eternity; equality, among men; differentiation, among the ideals of men; value, of the spiritual and material possessions of man; toleration, of the ideals and ideas and habits of other people; egotism, of Gathergold, Blood and Thunder, Old Stony Phiz; evolution, in the growth of Ernest's life; and reverence, on seeking the work of God so vividly.

II. Which the teacher and the story developed: Remoteness, happened far away; novelty, in a strange place; height, of great mountains; peace, of silent mountains; love of nature; majesty, of great mountains and the stone face; love of mother, seen in Ernest; inspiration, in Ernest's experience; wonderful, in the work of nature; beauty, in nature and in Ernest's character, earnestness, in Ernest; goodness, of the boy; loneliness, of his environment; superstition, of Ernest and his mother and the citizens of the valley; possibility, of truth in the story; ideals, of the boy; excitement, of the welcomes; selfishness, of Gathergold and the other "great men;" lack of sympathy, in the hearts of the "great men" for mankind; imperiousness, of the military spirit; narrowness, of the politician; mystery, of the poet; expectation, of the fulfillment of prophecy; popularity, of Ernest; appreciation, of good men and good literature; dislike, for undesirable citizens.

REALIZATIONS.

1. Essential—or those which all must get: Seriousness, of the author, of Ernest, and his mother, and the Great Stone Face; sternness, of the Great Stone Face; isolation, of the setting; beauty, of nature and the sylvan verdure; ambition, of Ernest to grow into the likeness and virtue of the Great Face; peace, of the Pemigewasset Valley; expectation, of Ernest and his fellow citizens ; hope, that they would live to see the prophecy fulfilled; constancy, in the work of God with nature; justice, of God in rewarding virtuous living; voice of nature, through the sounds of winds, leaves, trees, rubbing of branches, running of brooks, noises of animals, birds, and insects; superstition, in taking the prophecy seriously; altitude, in the height of the Great Stone Face

above Ernest's house; happiness, of Ernest when the poet revealed to him finally his (Ernest's) identity; excitement, on welcoming the strangers to the village; hospitality, in the warmth of their welcome; joy, in the hearts of the citizens on offering this hospitality; satisfaction, on beholding each newcomer; disappointment, on dismissing each newcomer; material success, on observing Gathergold, Blood and Thunder, and Old Stony Phiz; comparison, among the three prospective likenesses of the Stone Face; doubt, when Ernest beheld them; extravagance, of Gathergold; association, of yellow and selfishness on beholding Gathergold; selfishness, of many business men; insincerity of all three prospective heroes; authority, of the three "great men;" military power, of Battleblast; fame, through wealth, the military, and politics; incompatibility, of Ernest and the three prospective heroes; sincerity, of Ernest; reward for virtue, in the poet's choice of Ernest; truth, in the moral to which the author points; righteousness, of God in rewarding the virtuous.

2. Contributing realizations—or those that come from various outside sources such as irrelevant experience, imagination, attitudes, ideals, environment (not through immediate personal experience), hints from others, etc. Novelty, of the setting; peculiarity, of the boy and his mother who live so far from civilization; freshness, of the forest and earth; beauty, of earth, forest, and sky in contrast; wonder, at the cleverness of the author; prophecy, in the legend; majesty, of the Great Stone Face; unrest, in the heart of the boy; unrest, in the heart of nature; emulation, in Ernest's heart; strength, in the hills; virility, in the Old Man of the Mountain; color, of the foliage and flowers; blackness, of the forests in a notch; gray, of the stone precipices, clouds, and the trousers of Old Stony Phiz; spaciousness, of the valley; familiarity, of the people with the Stone Face; comfort, of the home life of the farmers; time, of the origin of the hills; rushing, of the swollen mountain stream; love of mankind, by Ernest; pensiveness, of the boy; faith, in the fulfillment of the prophecy; kindness, of the expression of the Stone Face; futility of the material, seen in the lives of the three heroes; real love, mother for son; fluency, in

style of author; fitness of author; fitness of things, in the celebration; tenderness, between Ernest and his mother; simplicity, in the life and habits of country people; neighborliness, of the towns-people; serenity, in the Old Man's face; contrast, between the manners of the three apparent heroes and that of the Stone Face; placidity, of nature; doubt, in Ernest's heart; differentiation, between the actual and the ideal in the story; poverty, of the beggars who asked charity of Gathergold; yellow, in fold and complexion of Gathergold; service, of Gathergold's attendants; rumbling, of the wheels of Gathergold's coach; pomp and ceremony, on welcoming the three "great men;" speed, of the dashing horses; death, in the passing of Gathergold; festivity, at the banquet given to Gathergold and his later rivals; antiquity, in the general's chair, formerly Washington's; anxiety, of the crowd and Ernest to hear the great speakers; physical strength, of Battleblast; moral strength, of Ernest; hypocrisy, in the showy spirit of the audience; mystical, in the echoes from the voices of the speakers; imperiousness, of Battleblast; humility, of Ernest; enthusiasm, of the crowd assembled; will power, in the face of Blood and Thunder; endurance, in the Stone Face and that of Blood and Thunder; energy, in Blood and Thunder; wisdom, great in God and small in the three newcomers; gloom, in the mists of the mountain-side; new courage, in the glory and beauty of each rising sun; vocation, in Ernest's calling to the ministry; magnanimity, in Ernest and the Great Stone Face; influence, of Ernest's life upon those of other people; mediocrity, on recalling the lives of the three "great men;" error, in the judgment of the people; accuracy, in the wisdom and judgment of Ernest; eloquence, in the speech of Old Stony Phiz; conceit, among mortals; persuasion, in the words of the three newcomers; music, in their voices, from the band and the echoes; might, in the individuality of Old Stony Phiz; hardness, in the heart and face of Old Stony Phiz; ceremony, in the receptions to the newcomers; grandeur, in the intensity and prolongation of the echoes; contagion, in the spreading attitude towards the three speakers; intrusion, of Ernest's neighbor when Ernest was listening to Old Stony Phiz;

madness, of an unthinkable crowd; fickleness, of such a crowd; old age, in Ernest's personality; radiance, in his face; grace, in his conduct; romance, in the setting of the story; genius, of Ernest and the poet, emotion, of the crowd, the speakers, and Ernest; self-control, of Ernest; respect, for Ernest and the poet; confusion, of the crowd; harmony, between Ernest and the crowd, and in the echoes of voices; sadness, in Ernest's aspect; unworthiness, in the "great men" and the poet; true worth, in Ernest; freedom, in country life; solemnity, of the last occasion; nobility, of the character of Ernest; irresistibility, on hearing Ernest speak; spontaneity, of the poet; divinity, in the fulfillment of the prophecy.

3. Distracting Realizations: Interruption, from the teacher or classmates; loneliness, on recalling how I was once lost in the woods; the unfitness of things, on recalling a silly remark made by a "flapper" when I visited the Great Stone Face; beauty of the setting, returning impressions combine with the pictures of the author to distort present realizations; confusion, from experiences last summer contrasting with present impressions; weariness, because the story moves too slowly; impatience, because Ernest believes in prophecies; allegory, on recalling a similar story; failure, those circumstances attending Gathergold's experience much like my uncle's; comparison, Blood and Thunder reminds me of Benedict Arnold; old Stony Phiz of Daniel Webster, the poetry of Emerson; curiosity, at the meaning of a new word; inquisition, if the teacher has ever been on the Great Stone Face; doubt, that natural rock formation could resemble an old man's face; play, good fishing up there; height, could anybody scale that precipice?—distrust, of pickpockets in the crowd of auditors; hunger, aroused by the picture of the banquet.

4. Realizations That Can Be Developed Only Through Immediate Personal Experience: Appreciation, of sunrise or sunset in the White Mountains, of Ernest, only through sitting in the presence of a great man; true happiness, coming as the by-product of work well done; real self-satisfaction, the result of giving to others in full measure of one's ability to give; spirit of

the hills, by living among them in all sorts of seasons and weather with their own people who love them in silence, and echo their love of mankind in their daily way of life; furthermore, in inspiration coming from nature in various ways, on listening to the echoes of the bugle in the mountains; richness of life, from an evening or a camping trip sleeping around open fires with boys of Ernest's type; poverty, only by being stricken penniless and friendless oneself; thrill, only by being strong and eloquent in one's own conviction, and moving a crowd to action; power of God, on being saved from death, witnessing the sparing of another's life, or having a prayer definitely answered; real magnanimity, by doing, or receiving the fruits of, a most generous act; true success, by having one's own life become a blessing to others.

I must not infer that all or most of the above sensings and realizations may come to any single or several young readers of "The Great Stone Face." A teacher who has lived many years under the strong influence of the benign aspect of the Old Man of the Mountain, among his own people, enjoying still the spirit of the hills, nestling in his heart and soul the silence of the great North, echoing the true ring of the rugged forest in his speech, and flashing in memory the beauty of his boyhood environment, can prepare the minds of his pupils for a golden experience with this story. After they read it, the pupils will do most of the talking. If rich and varied and contributing impressions are given in full measure before the reading is begun, why not leave them afterwards to their own individual impressions and reflection, for we know that

> "They have heard whispers from the mountain's heart,
> And life henceforth is nobler."

Freedom in Education

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THERE are cogent reasons why the concepts of freedom and education should always be associated. Freedom is one of the most noble ideas that we have, and to connect any activity with it is to raise that activity to the worth of the idea. Freedom is vitally connected with all human interests. Just now, the theory of evolution is the object of a rather general popular attack. The reason seems to be a fear that human consciousness is robbed of its freedom if the development of human life has a natural explanation, or is related without break in the series of development to low forms of life.

But no person need fear to examine the evidence of his natural development. The mind that can trace such stages of its own history, that can run its thought back and forth over the vast periods of growth and formulate developmental laws, such as adaptation to environment, variation, or the survival of the fittest, —that mind by the very act emancipates itself from the process. The act may be compared to a person marching in a great procession; he can, at will, step outside and review it. The procession is of much interest to him, but there is more to him than the procession.

Freedom is vitality related to all social activity. Business is based upon voluntary contract. Legal penalties are seasonable only because of the assumption that the wrongdoer has the ability to choose another course of action. The sense of responsibility, so important in all high-minded action, is due to the feeling that responsibility can be avoided. There is no real moral action without freedom.

Determinists, to be sure, produce able arguments, which prove, at least, that freedom of choice is not the simple problem that it

appears to be without reflection. It might be said that education does not have to deal with the subtleties of freedom, but has only to take people as they are and go on with its pedagogy. Dr. G. S. Hall has said that it would be wise to teach religion, even if the vitality of the religious ideas were to decay, because pedagogy "need have nothing to say respecting the absolute truth or falsity of these ideas." Still, in time, enthusiasm for developing moral actions and religious sentiments would wane, if belief became certain that morality is a dream and God a shadow.

But we do not need to have such doubts; doubters have only partly thought out the problem. Bergson has given reasons enough to indicate that psychology and evolution need not destroy one's belief in real choice and true freedom of the will. In Kant's Metaphysic of Morals is the profound remark that "every being that cannot act except under the idea of freedom is just for that reason . . . really free." Then follows the statement that every rational being with a will "acts entirely under this idea" of freedom. In any case one may fall back upon the pragmatist's method of reasoning and say that belief in freedom is sound because it has produced results—results in character and in civilization.

Freedom has a vital relation to the highest thoughts and ideals of which man is capable, his religion and philosophy. It will be sufficient here to recall the familiar words of Kant's that philosophy has to do with God, freedom, and immortality.

There is another kind of reason why freedom should be associated with our education: freedom has from the first been inseparably connected with our national life. The history of our country can be written around the theme of freedom. Consider how much history is comprehended in such a list of topics as the following: religious freedom, political independence, freedom in international trade, emancipation, industrial freedom, the open door, free land. It was in the course of things that some one should give us the exclamation, "Give me liberty or give me death." The principle of freedom as well as of equality naturally found a place in the Declaration of Independence, and our fundamental law, as a matter of sincerity, declares that one of the purposes of the Constitution is to preserve the blessings of liberty.

The problems connected with freedom of action and the preservation of freedom are different in the twentieth century from what they were in the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries. The most important physical reason for this is the fact that the American frontier has gone. A Williams or a Hooker, when holding disputed opinions, cannot move on and found new states; dissatisfied farmers cannot leave the tidewater and go toward the hills; "Western youths" cannot with the former facility go "conquering, holding, daring, venturing" into the "unknown ways," when conditions arouse restlessness. The tide of migration has reached the shores of the greatest ocean and the undercurrent now flows eastward.

When dissatisfaction and restraint are burdensome, nervous energy is not exploded in wild and open lands, but the outbreak occurs in the old, settled places. Strikes are in the midst of us and are felt by all. The "crime wave" does not break on the edge of civilization but over crowded cities. At the same time, conditions are so complex that remedies are difficult to find; legislators are often hesitant and public opinion indecisive and bewildered.

Nature has been good to us in the past; but now some way must be found to take the place of nature, if we are to keep our free institutions and preserve in the individual the free, indomitable spirit that is our birthright. The country can long remain powerful, can long be a leader among the nations, but the United States of America will have reached its apogee whenever—may it be never—its citizens are willing to barter freedom for anything, whether it be comfort, pleasure, or even life.

It is the function of education to supply what nature does not give. Education does not furnish vocal cords, brains, or hands, but it does help in the development of language, the acquirement of comprehensive thoughts, and the fabrication of useful and beautiful objects. Education must assume its share of the large and patriotic function of taking the place of the frontier in developing and preserving our national characteristic of freedom. Here is a motive for education that is comprehensive and which may arouse the zeal of educators.

But can education accept the task? When the country most needs help in upholding its high spirit of freedom, is the educational system sure to be found ready? If the country is in danger of losing its virility, will not the institutions of the country be likely to show signs of lessened vigor? This is not a pessimistic paper, but every institution that would teach freedom must aim to be fully free itself. Our educative system should be examined to see whether it lacks freedom in any particular.

For example, our public education is compulsory. Can compulsory education teach freedom? Freedom and compulsion are contradictory terms; the spirit of the two are exclusive. Can compulsion take a child to the door of a schoolhouse and leave him there? Don't think that this is a play on the words, compulsion and freedom. The logic of every situation will work itself out, unless the logic is forestalled. Is it to be thought that every school in the country, when a child approaches accompanied by its natural associate of freedom, admits both the child and the companion?

Again, education is now on a large scale and the machinery of administration has been enlarged along with the number of learners. Once education was locally controlled, but since the time of Horace Mann the state has more and more managed all the educational affairs within its limits. But extensive administration always tends to externality, rigid rules, authority, and dictation. These are foes of freedom. Yet we must have administration. There is a growing tendency to allow within the school system more initiative and influence to the class-room teacher. This is in opposition to the administrative tendency and is a good sign.

Similarly, there is a proposition to make our educational system much more under the control of the national government. Some people fear that the passage of the contemplated act would in time make the states subservient in a national system, much as the local districts have become. Friends of the new movement declare that such results would not eventuate. It is well, however, that the issue has been raised.

As to the higher educational institutions, there is a somewhat vigorous attempt to curtail the scientific freedom of colleges and universities by legislative enactment. If the legislative, executive, and judicial departments of our government should be separated, certainly the legislatures should be kept out of science. Some years ago, Senator Lodge gave an address in which his facts were at variance with the historical pride of the locality. Some interested politicians proposed that the issue be taken before the next Massachusetts legislature for settlement—by majority vote. The testing of scientific theories and the determination of purely historical facts are not legislative functions. There must be "eternal vigilance" within all parts of the educational system to preserve its freedam. For, let it be repeated, to teach freedom an institution must be alive with freedom.

The pedagogy of the theme should not be overlooked. Let us briefly consider more analytically the nature of freedom with reference to how it should be taught. When Aristotle organized his ethical system, he studied the acts of good men to learn the nature of goodness. So may it be done in the case of freedom: how do free persons act? First, and negatively, they do not bemoan the obvious fact that they are not wholly free; for, this latter is impossible. To be wholly free would mean to be without conditions, and nothing finite can escape being conditioned. We are conditioned by space and time, our minds are limited by our bodies, we are conditioned by our physical and social environment, our past has entered into character, which aids or hinders in new undertakings.

Our pedagogy will start from this negative position of non-freedom, but it will quickly lead a long distance into positive freedom. Those who try to act as if there were no conditions are the lawless ones, who finally discover that both nature and society are arrayed against them, or they are the weak ones, who merely kick against the pricks. Intelligent finite freedom begins with admitting conditions and, moreover, going in search of them instead of ignoring them. But to know a limitation is greatly to be independent of it. To know that perpetual motion is impossible

is to free one from the fruitless task of trying to attain it. Since the time of Bacon, the modern world has made progress largely by this method. This is the accepted method of experimental science—to condition a problem by isolating it and then to assemble for investigation all the conditions relating to the problem. When all the conditions are known, the problem is conquered, the scientist has free control over it.

But the same method has been employed in every other successful undertaking: the industrial revolution, national and international advances, business achievements, have been great in proportion as they have mastered the conditions that could be controlled but not ignored. Compare the incantations of a medicine man, who shuts his eyes, so to speak, to all conditions, and the highly intelligent acts of a Pasteur, who seeks the minutest conditions. For finite beings, conditions are the tools for the use of freedom, not fetters to enslave.

But in our present civilization, it must be noticed as a condition for our thought, people are far from happy and their outlook for the future, in many parts of the world, is discouraging. The reason is that our age is interested in nature more than in man. We have gone a long way in conquering the conditions imposed by physical nature, but we have not included in our problem a factor more important than nature—mankind. If the terrible conditions of to-day are to have their due effect upon education, all social studies will be much more emphasized. When mankind is included in every problem, along with all other conditions, a civilization will result which will be happy as well as marvellous.

The bearing of these thoughts upon education may be put into this maxim: teach the learner in all stages of the educative process to take time to consider the conditions of every problem, and to include mankind as a constant condition in them all. By this maxim not only methods of instruction may be tested but, also, all problems of discipline, especially the conduct of pupils when in the presence of others. If they are required, for instance, to hold themselves in restrain by rules used in school, not in life, they are not trained to master social conditions, which, we have seen, are

the most important conditions that must be taken into consideration.

In conclusion, to show the possibilities of teaching freedom in this way, consider some implications of such free action. The process is this: the free actor gathers up into a single survey the numerous conditions of his problem. When this is done, he has a command of the situation that we can behold with wonder. How the mind acts when conditions have been thus conquered is not known. But the mind has a comprehensive glance over the whole; it has a kind of insight "*totum simul*," an insight all at once, which is the eternal type of consciousness, a definition accepted by both James and Royce. Such thinking lifts man toward the eternal realm, and it is no wonder that great things have resulted on earth through the method of experimental science.

Evolutionists' scares and determinists' arguments look small when we consider what man really is in his freedom. And the function of education is shown to have a limitless significance when finite beings are guided to control temporal conditions in co-operation with other human beings. Education in the spirit of freedom looks beyond the world of time and space into eternity.

The Subject Matter of Introductory Science and Its Organization

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THE choice of subject matter of a course in introductory science must be determined by its aims and purposes, and be so controlled that it may best supply the most efficient educational means for teachers and pupils. The greatest difficulty lies in its organization; there is no lack of material, for the field of introductory science is the universe and all therein; its laboratory, the earth; its recitation, life itself.

1. Bases for the Choice of Content.

The subject matter of introductory science should be general in its nature and not limited by the man-made boundaries of any one branch of science. Much of the value of the introductory course depends upon the fact that on account of its general nature it can, and does, reach every child in some particular, interest him in this, and start him on the main road of achievement. Such a course should begin, and continue, with those facts, truths and principles which affect the pupil to a very great extent in his everyday life. "Mathematics and science should find a center for their work in the life and environment of the child, for here the objective material is found upon which the entire instruction is based."[1] It necessarily follows that if the environment of the child is to be the source of material, the latter must consist of common things and ordinary phenomena. Likewise,, the emphasis should be placed upon the descriptive and qualitative consideration of these things and phenomena rather than upon their quantitative determination. "What we need is a quality of knowledge which shall

1. Rein, W. Outlines of Pedagogics, p. 161.

be alive and set the child's face right toward the universe, and thus form the foundation for active, helpful living."[2]

2. The Organization of an Introductory Science Course.

The plan of a course will determine to a great extent the value of the results which will be derived from it. Holmes wrote to the effect that it does not matter so much where you are, as where you are headed; thus the course should be so organized as to lead in *some* definite direction. This direction should naturally be according to the ideals and purposes of the course. While introductory science must be general in its nature and not specialized, it must not be indefinite or indeterminate.

In many schools the immediate predecessor of introductory science was physical geography, and the transition was easy, since physical geography contains so much material of a general scientific quality. Nevertheless, if introductory science is to function effectively it must not be limited in its development by the requirements of a study of physical geography alone; introductory science should embrace all of the elementary principles of physical geography—and much more. There are many facts and principles which have a fundamental and profound effect upon a child's life which can not be treated from the viewpoint of physical geography.

While physical geography was the first science to be taken as the guiding principle for a course in introductory science, there have arisen advocates for many other sciences which may be used in a similar manner and for a little purpose. Thus biology, physiology, agriculture, and even physics and chemistry, have been offered as guides. It is this very prevalent opinion that any science may be the guide for a course in introductory science that defeats the advocates of any *one* of the sciences. The reason why any branch of science may seem, to one who knows it as a specialist, to be the best approach to a study of introductory science is because the latter, being general in its content and ideals, may be approached from all viewpoints. Yet it does not follow that any specialized science affords the best solution of the problem of

2. Hodge, C. F. Foundations of Nature Study, Pedagogical Seminary, Vol. VII, No. 2.

organization. Since the course is to be planned for the good of the child, and not for the satisfaction of the scientist, his interests and needs must be kept in mind.

3. Interest as a Factor in Organization.

If the subject matter of a course in introductory science is so arranged that just as interest lags a new interest may be aroused, the attention of the pupil may be held, to his great and lasting advantage. Interest begets interest, and the ability to become interested in matters not previously attractive is one of the desired results of education. It is not the province of introductory science to amuse, and thus hold the interest through a sort of mental bribery; its object is to make the pupil in unity with it, to cause him to build within himself a sympathetic kinship with the subject matter in which he is receiving instruction.

There are two centers of interest which may govern the organization of the subject matter: Geocentric and anthropocentric. In the first the immediate surroundings form the materials of subject matter, and, with enlarging spirals, such a selection may be made as will include all knowledge. In the second the individual, rather than the place he occupies, is the center and the procedure is more personal, and thus more interesting to the child. The actual subject matter may be nearly the same in content whichever center is taken, and, since the child is the one to be considered, the choice of the child as the center of interest is more to be desired. The order of the subject matter should be such that it will fall naturally into ever-widening circles, leading farther and farther from the central self. In this respect introductory science may exercise a strong civilizing influence, since it leads the child out of himself to a growing appreciation of the universe. "The child must be civilized, and as we have said again and again, the essence of civilization is that remote and not immediate ends govern conduct."[3]

3. Bagley, W. C. The Educative Process, p. 109.

4. Organization from the Viewpoint of Various Needs.

The subject matter may be arranged in such a manner that it will consider the needs of a plant, or of an animal, or of a child. Again, the study may be directed toward the satisfaction of a particular need, or of a series of needs. Finally, a larger viewpoint may be chosen, and the course developed along the lines of civic needs.

The great objection to the use of the needs of a plant as the organizing factor is that a plant can have only biological needs; the child who is being educated could learn nothing concerning his psychological and sociological requirements. If the purpose of introductory science is to teach physiology, it may well have the needs of a plant as a guiding principle; if it is to fit the pupil for *living*, in the complete sense, then such a method would fall far short of its purpose. What is true of a course founded upon the needs of a plant is equally true of one based upon the needs of an animal, although the latter plan would bring the subject matter somewhat closer to the child. Since the child is the one to be considered, his point of view should be valuable as a guide.

The weight of evidence is strongly in favor of considering the child as the center of the course, and indicates that the best organization will be controlled by his needs, physical, physiological, psychological and social. Further, that the consideration of these needs should start with the immediate environment, gradually extending this until it embraces man's dependence upon man—his civic needs. "It is usually assumed that one purpose of the course in science is to enable the pupil to adjust himself more exactly to his environment."[4] This conclusion does not indicate that because the individual should be the center of the course, physiology should be the starting point, any more than that psychology should be given in the first year of the grades, in order that the six-year-old may learn to study.

5. The "Project" Method.

Following the plan that education should be based upon the

4. Eikenberry, W. L. The General-Science Course in the University High School, The School Review, Vol. XX, No. 4.

satisfaction of some *felt* need, or upon the solution of some difficulty, the project method has developed. That the meaning of "projects" is not clear to many educators is evidenced by the fact that the advocates of the method have spent considerable time and effort in attempting to explain in what respects their plan differs from the objectives of a well-taught science course. "A *project* differs from a *topic* in that (1) a project originates in some pupil's question, and not in an adult's logical sequence of ideas. Its implications need not, therefore, be confined like a topic to any of the arbitrary divisions of science, such as physics, biology, etc., which have been devised for the intellectual convenience of adults. (2) The project involves the active and motivated participation of the pupils in carrying it out. (3) The project never ends in a complete, final, or absolutely finished conclusion."[5] "Every real problem or project in science, then, must originate from a perplexity, the solution of which is felt to be necessary for the satisfaction of a personal need. This need may arise in the natural course of experience or it may be presented by the teacher directly or indirectly through excursion, lecture, or reading: what is absolutely ncessary is that it may be comprehended, approved, and adopted by the pupil as his own."[6] "In a word they are to learn to do things they should be doing and will do in the future by doing those things now, not by doing something else or by letting another provide the thinking necessary for them."[7]

Whether the project method is one solution of the question in regard to organization, or is, after all, but a method of presentation must be decided by the teachers of introductory science. All skillful teachers of science continually draw upon the home and life experiences of the pupils, as well as giving them practical applications of the science being studied, and also set up artificial problems in order that the pupils may have the opportunity of

5. Woodhull, J. F., Chairman. Some Fundamental Principles, Formulated by the Committee on General Science of the N. E. A.

6. Briggs, T. H. General Science in Secondary Schools, Teachers College Record, Vol. XVII, No. 1.

7. Hosic, J. F. The Present Status of the Project Method, The Journal of the National Education Association, Vol. XI, No. 10.

exercising their ability of directed thinking. The appeal is always made to the child and according to his point of view. In the making of apparatus, in the performing of experiments, both in the home and at school, when accomplished under proper conditions, the natural interest shows forth. The local conditions are emphasized in every good science course, and attention is called to the means by which these conditions may be improved.

A well-taught science course should offer projects as means of summing up, or putting into effect knowledge already acquired for the purpose of accomplishing a definite and desired end. As usually advocated, the project method seems to lean toward the accomplishment of a series of ends, rather than the acquisition of a body of knowledge by means of which a large number of ends may be easily attained. The tendency is toward training and not toward the development of general and fundamental principles upon which all knowledge must rest. While training and education form a natural partnership in the well-rounded development of the child, the difference between the two must always be kept in mind—the trained man can never do more than that in which he has received his training; the educated man has no limitations. The great danger of the project method lies in the tendency to raise the method to the dignity of an objective.

6. The Method of the Development of the Course.

When the purpose of introductory science is remembered—to give information, satisfy some need or needs, and to develop an adjustment with the environment—there can be no doubt that the method of presentation should be according to the way in which the child thinks. The teacher must put himself in the position of the child, he must remember how he felt as a child, and he must have a continuing sympathy with the activity of a child's mind. It is impossible to state a hard and fast method of development; naturally, since one of the most important advantages of the course is that it gives opportunities for increasing the ability of better thinking, the method of development will change as the course continues. A few dangers may be avoided and disappointments

prevented by treating the introductory course more as an introduction to science, and to the scientific attitude of mind, than as science itself, although none of the advantages of the scientific instruction need be sacrificed on this account. To the contrary, the changing of miscellaneous and wandering fancies to homogeneous and directed thoughts *is* scientific education.

One of the supposed prime requisites of a course in any of the specialized sciences, according to the method pursued in most instances, is that its study should be according to logical sequence. While many of these sciences are presented in a manner which is far from logical, according to the best authorities in logic, nevertheless the logic is constantly emphasized. This emphasis has, more than any other factor, made science in the schools distasteful to the pupils. As has been said elsewhere,[8] and still strongly believed, "The sciences themselves have been taught in a logical manner. It might be well to ask from whose standpoint a science is taught logically; from the pupil's or the teacher's? I believe that sciences have been too logical; there has been too little attention paid to "natural sequence" and too little consideration paid to the wishes of the pupils, who can recognize no "logical sequence" until they have passed on and can review the subject as a whole." That science does not stand alone in this respect is evident from the following: *"The logical from the viewpoint of subject matter represents the goal, the last term of training, not the point of departure. . . .* In truth, the mind at every stage of development has its own logic. . . . the *psychological* and the *logical* instead of being opposed to each other (or even independent of each other), are connected *as the earlier and the later stages in one continuous process of normal growth."*[9]

If the psychological method of development is to be desired in the presentation of all subjects, science, especially, should be so adjusted to the needs of the child as to make the strongest possible appeal to his developing mind, and to offer the most satisfying

8. Rowell, P. E. Elementary Science for High Schools, *in* National Education Association. Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1911, p. 951.

9. Dewey, J. How We Think, p. 62.

answers to his all embracing, but natural, curiosity. The scientific method, in its truest sense, has won for itself the highest place in the estimation of educators; for that very reason the teachers entrusted with the introductory science course should develop it according to the psychological demands of the child, to the end that he may acquire the logical—the truly scientific attitude of mind.

The Grass

(From "Praise-Songs")

The green decks the open drawing-room of Nature,
The carpet whereon freemen have ever danced!
Sturdy streams from the ancient soil,
Rivers of verdure vying with the blue ocean,
Upspringing in God's praise, a perfect song of praise!
Rich velvet are grassy slopes dreaming in the low sun,
The broad reaches of the smooth lawn, where bright blossoms lie empillowed, fresh jewels on Nature's vivid dress!
I brood upon it as we pass the churchyard, the breathing, undying grass — graves o'ergrown with grass, how it softens them! lovely covering for the dead, waking the hope of life.

Meandering hills of spring, blued by the distance, above which swooning clouds faintly blush,
Fields where the violet wakes, the buttercup glows; where, beside the plashy brook the purple iris blooms in her perfection,—yet what were these color-solos without their attendant harmony, the choral praise-song of the grass?
The kine lift their heads, grateful for the succulent stems they crop:
The midsummer grass mown in the fields sends forth a benediction of fragrance, the spirits of the heal-all herbs.
Drifts from salt meadows, the odor of the nuptials of the sea and the grass, stirring heart-memories, hope for the beauty of the coming years.
O praise God for the grass, His mantle of grace flung lightly over the earth!

HELEN CARY CHADWICK.

Textbook Democracy

Elizabeth S. Peck,
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"CERTAINLY there were no such attractive textbooks published when I was in school." This is the remark most frequently heard these days at exhibits of high school literature. At first sight the attractiveness of the twentieth century text seems to lie in its bright-lettered cover, its abundant pictures, and its clear-faced page. But to tell the truth, the real charm lies rather in the material than in the form, attractive though that may be. In the handling of material these new textbooks bear frank testimony to the educational democracy of our day.

Time was when the high school course was for the few elect, endowed by nature with brains, money, or educated parents. Now the high school course is reaching out for all with a gift for every kind of seeker. The new text-books are as they are, because of a clear recognition of this sweeping democracy in education.

The new high school textbook, whether in Latin, in geometry, in history, or in what not, presumes, and very wisely, that the student is only an average youth, one of America's millions, and not a budding young intellectual. It presumes that his thoughts are prone to wander from the straight and narrow path of reason and therefore need frequent topic headings as sign posts, and thought questions as eye openers along the tortuous way. It also presumes that long, unbroken paragraphs repel him. Pictures are no longer supposed to be clear and meaningful by themselves, and so the author adds a full explanation of them. When a definition is introduced (a definition, you must understand, is a veritable *bête noir* on the pathway of the mysteries), it is introduced with meticulous care, illustrated in a dozen different ways, and then drilled in by case upon case for exercise.

Surely Latin and algebra must have lost their terrors for the beginner these days, judging from the new books. Who would have thought that the *gradus ad Parnassum* could be made so easy? Ancient history reads like fiction, now that so many dates, hard names, and constitutional details have been relegated to the discard. Geometry seems like a cross between handwork and review algebra, savored with a touch of reasoning. Thus has the course of the intellectual mysteries been cleared for Everyboy (and his sister).

The new high school textbook shows its democratic leaning also in its recognition of the fact that Everyboy is sure to ask this question of his teacher, "Of what use is this study?" If a boy cannot see the use of it, he feels as though he had no time for it, since life is very full and Everyboy must get to real work as soon as possible. The aristocratic may have time to dream over interesting and refining luxuries of thought, but this American boy of ours is headed straight for the realities of life, and so he insists upon learning only those things for which he is sure to find a use.

The new textbooks strive zealously, sometimes almost painfully, to show the practical use that can be made of ideas. Of course no author ventures to show the use of everything he sees fit to teach, but at least he suggests uses at intervals so frequent that Everyboy gets the comfortable reaction that this subject is really fitting him for life. Some people think that these applications are inserted merely to arouse interest. You talk with your schoolboy and you will find a deeper reason. He simply resents what he cannot see a use for. That is why the new Latin books bristle with derivations, and the geometries with flagpoles and linoleum patterns. That is why French books introduce conversation in the first lesson. Young America demands essentials; even though he knows so little about his future needs.

Another confession which appears in the new texts is that of life and death competition. Everyboy has been brought up on the attractive juvenile literature provided in Democracy's public libraries, and has drunk deeply of the joy of being entertained by books. Why should not his school books entertain him too? He

has poured over tales of adventure and travel until he was completely lost in the past. He half expects history to hold him spellbound in the same way. He has played with batteries, a wireless apparatus on the roof, and the family flivver. Quite naturally he expects high school physics to be at least as interesting as these things. He has learned from the gramophone, the movie screen, and the elementary school with a minimum of effort and a maximum of entertainment. He expects to be drawn to his high school work by a similar magnetic pull.

It is not enough that the new books follow Matthew Arnold's requirement of clearness, brevity, proportion, and sobriety. They must also 'put it across,' whatever may be the technical term for that very important function. Everyboy is willing to do anything interesting that the author suggests, but he simply cannot stand being bored. He demands a high tension of interest from beginning to end, and such adornment of interest and variety is being added as fast as authors can work out devices. But it is hard to keep up wth the demand, especially for those of the older generation who were not brought up on such highly seasoned food.

Most curious of all is the open confession in the new textbooks that Everyboy's teacher will probably be an amateur teacher without much training for that particular subject; in other words, that the teacher will be, like the student, one of Democracy's own products. Time was when the textbook presumed a specialist who would add the enthusiasm of accumulated knowledge to supplement the condensed manual. Now we might as well frankly admit that the majority of our high school teachers are novices blessed with the enthusiasm of youth rather than of knowledge, and that they will teach subjects for which they have had a little special training. The fact is, they need textbooks which will not make too heavy a demand upon either time or knowledge, and so the kindly master behind the textbook has become the super-teacher who makes up for the amateurness of the teacher.

The old professor in his class used to add (now really did he?) many interesting facts about Euclid, Archimedes, and Descartes. The new textbook in geometry does not distress the teacher by leav-

ing it to him to review the history of mathematics, but simply prints a full and interesting account of each important geometrician, advertising the subject by an attractive picture. What a relief this must be to three-fourths of the teachers of geometry in democratic America!

But for all these changes in textbooks, the real task of making Everyboy's books has hardly been touched yet. Beneath the problem of how to interest him, how to keep him at work, how to make him educate himself against the textbook, lies the deeper problem of finding out what he really ought to learn. The super-teachers are wrestling with the matter of writing books for the few and for the many, all thrown together into the same school and even into the same class. They must write history for those who are to lead and those who are to follow. They must write mathematics for those who will become engineers and those who will become clerks. They must write civics for boys and for girls. I say that the super-teachers who are working out these problems are true statesmen. They are developing a type of education which will make the people fit for the ballot, a free press, and a margin of leisure time.

Mollycoddling in the Teaching of Written Composition

Bonnie Gilbert, Chattanooga, Tenn., High School.

TEACHING children to write sentences correctly is generally regarded as commonplace. Not only do the public and teachers of other subjects regard it as commonplace, but many who presumably are English teachers look upon it as work of infinite boredom,—as uninteresting as washing dishes and sweeping floors. Then let us floor sweepers and dish-washers look up a moment from our task and survey our fellow workers. Let us rest a moment on our broom handles and just talk among ourselves. How came some of us to be sweeping floors and washing dishes in the English department instead of in the history, or mathematics, or science department?

Some one confesses with candor worthy of a nobler cause, "Well, I chose English because I didn't know enough about anything else when I got out of school." Another, with equal frankness, "Well, I chose it because I thought it was the easiest subject in the curriculum."

But some do not get the opportunity to speak, for just then a group of superintendents and principals passes by, and one, being caught by the spirit of honest confession, says: "I admit I always select my science, manual training, or mathematics teachers with more discrimination than I do my English teachers; there seem reasons for it." And another adds: "Well, I too, am guilty; when I can, I put my doubtful teachers into English departments, for I feel that a failure there will do less harm and be less conspicuous than elsewhere."

It is remarkable how few people realize the complexity of English as a subject to teach; or what changes have come about in the subject since its introduction into the curriculum not so

many years ago; or what changes are taking place in the subject all the time. In its present state of organization the English teacher is supposed to teach the children to know fairly well the great literary leaders, to enjoy books, and to be able to employ fair discrimination in selecting them. Then she must teach them to write acceptably. This means she must teach them form, spelling, capitalization, punctuation and paragraphing. The simplest letter involves a knowledge of all these. Then, if the athletic association needs new sweaters, or the parents-teachers' association buys a new victrola, or the chapel needs more pictures, the English teacher must give a play. This does not include such small duties as serving as secretary to this and that, or writing up the entertainments for the local press, or coaching the debating team, or supervising various essay contests and commencement exercises. And yet we are going to put her on the carpet for mollycoddling. She deserves it. For paradoxical as it may seem, the busier a teacher is the less excuse she has for mollycoddling.

Day after day, or as often as composition papers are handed in, the English teacher takes them and patiently red-inks the same old mistakes of "dosen't," "it's," "buisness," and numerous others of their associates. Here and there she indicates the need of a paragraph indentation; here is a plebeian noun running off with a capital, leaving some proper noun shamelessly bareheaded. Some sentences run blindly into others, while some lag along behind, only half-dressed. Finally, although in doubt as to what the grade should be, she puts down a C or a C minus on the strength of the subject-matter or the general appearance of the paper, and returns the themes the next day, only to make another assignment that will bring in more papers which will have the same old mistakes, not daunted by their red ink insult of the day before.

Certainly those same errors appear again! What is the use of going to the dictionary to make sure of the spelling of a word, or of bothering one's pate over such trifles as capital letters and punctuation; nobody but grown folk cares particularly about those

little things. They are not important, anyway, for teacher never "takes off" much for them.

Teacher is "taking off" for them, but not enough; not enough to prevent their frequent appearance. Instead, she struggles with them day after day, till at last she loses faith in her ability to conquer them and lapses into the kind of teacher that makes too free use of the waste-basket.

The teacher who imagines that by indicating the same errors day after day she is teaching written composition, is laboring under a harassing delusion,—harassing because, in spite of the fact that she is working to the last ounce of her strength, the class seem to be getting nowhere. Unfair as the statement may seem, the fault is all the teacher's. The average child is not going to do any more school work than he has to. If he is not made to realize, and realize keenly, the importance of correct spelling, form, paragraphing, and punctuation, he is not going to learn about them if he can get out of it. The teacher who red-inks day after day the well-known errors in these essentials, is not only expending futile energy, but she is providing the opportunity for her pupils to form lasting habits of slovenliness in writing. She needs to have the children expend some of the energy she is expending.

Sometimes it takes Old Man Desperation to pull us out of ruts. After several years' futile struggle against the errors so common in children's written work, I waked up to the fact that I had been working on the mistakes as such, instead of on them through the children; that I had been doing most of the work myself and had left very little for the children. In short, I had been molly-coddling them.

I was standing at the front door of a nine-months' term, and looking down a vista paved with loose-leaf theme books, every one of which I would have to turn leaf by leaf and read line by line without hope of the novelty of encountering a new kind of mistake. Suddenly it occurred to me that if I could make the children see that drab-colored vision they might be able to do something about it. I determined to try. So, beginning with my first class,

which happened to be ninth grade, I led them out in an informal discussion of the kind of mistakes boys and girls of their ages usually make in their written compositions. They knew all about it, from the simple matter of form.—through negligent indentation, careless spelling, indifferent punctuation, and haphazard capitalization.

I was rewarded by the frankest kind of confessions about their views concerning English in general, and written composition in particular. They usually prepared their English lesson last, and the themes always at the last minute. One could always manage to "get by" in English. Oh, yes, they always knew when they guessed at the spelling of a word. No, they never consulted a dictionary about it; the teacher simply marked the word if it were wrong. Oh, yes, capitals were easy enough if one stopped to think. They didn't bother much about the punctuation; people weren't expected to know that till they were grown. Anyway, that was something to do pretty much as one pleased. No use to bother yet awhile—the teacher gave that in special lessons. Oh, probably they could do better, but it would take a lot of time. One didn't have to know all that in order to "pass."

Their new theme books lay on the desks before them; they were receiving the usual preliminary instructions concerning theme-book rules and regulations. I remarked about the crispness and newness of the books, and regretted aloud that I would have to mar them with red ink. I wondered if it would be possible to go just one term—six weeks—without having to use red ink on the four "juvenile" errors, as I casually termed it. Of course, I had to explain that I meant such things as form, spelling, capitals and punctuation, as far as they were supposed to know. At first they didn't know, but when I reminded them about the shortness of a term, that made a difference; it might be possible. They would like to try it. I then promised them that I would do my part toward helping by not making any assignment that would require over one paragraph of eight or ten sentences. Oh, then! That would be easy; they knew they could make one paragraph correct in four points. They were enthusiastic.

We were to try it one term, with the understanding that if it worked so that they could see an improvement, we would continue it throughout the year with such modifications as we found necessary. The plan was then: no assignment was to be over one paragraph in length; they were to observe the conventional form, which was quite simple; they were to see that every word in the paragraph was correctly spelled; the paragraph was to be indented; no common word was to wear a capital unless it stood on duty at the door of a sentence; they were to use no mark of punctuation they could not give a reason for, and where they did not know a reason or find it out, they were not to use any mark. This was to break the comma habit.

We then worked out a plan for grading; rewards and penalties add zest to any game. A theme free from any of the four "juvenile errors" was to be scored A, regardless of other possible faults; and any theme containing as many as one of the errors was to be scored D, for it told of indolence. The child, however, by re-writing the theme and correcting the error could remove the low mark and get his A.

Strangely enough the boys seemed as much interested as the girls. Taking advantage of their co-operative attitude, I wondered aloud about how far back into the grades such a plan (modified, of course, to suit the conditions) would work. In their mood of "awareness" of the inseparableness of certain mechanics from even the shortest possible paragraph, one boy—the largest in the class—said, "As far back as the children are asked to *hand in* written work." I had not expected as much. And although coming from a pupil, it is an answer that is charged with meaning.

To be brief, we began our plan that day and continued it throughout the year. There was no mollycoddling about it; the careless were penalized according to agreement. The ones not spurred along by pride in achievement did their best in fear of the extra work. It took courage and persistence to carry out the plan, for the element of human nature is always to be reckoned with in the carrying out of any method. We had many fall by

the way, but in the main we moved together toward a common goal—Accuracy. It reduced unbelievably my red-inking; and incidentally, the matter of written composition rose several degrees in point of caste! Of one thing I am sure: we made noticeable advancement in breaking some well-established habits of carelessness in writing.

My talks with children in groups, and my study of their point of view in regard to English, have convinced me that children are aware of the fact that we teachers mollycoddle them. In their sleeves, they smile at us. Certainly they later reproach us! Experience which comes to the ones who go to college, and to those who enter business offices as stenographers, reveals to them that their English courses—most of them—furnished rather good training in carelessness.

It is far back in the grades that children get their impression of what constitutes written composition; back where they are asked to write so much. Where a child is not made to realize that a sentence written has some important differences from the same sentence spoken, the result is obvious: merely words—no mechanics. Some teachers fail to make this difference clear to the children from a sheer confusion of values. Have you ever visited a primary or elementary teacher and heard comments like the following: "That paper looks nice, Mary." Perhaps she holds it up for the others to see, with the remark, "Class, look at Mary's work; isn't it beautifully written? I couldn't do better myself. John, John! that looks awful. Such writing You will have to do that work over."

Penmanship, you see; not composition at all. Oh, no, she didn't intend it that way, but the children get it that way. John probably hates to write anyway, and somehow he soon gets the idea that composition and penmanship are one and the same. Before long he is boasting that he hates English. John's kind would respect some definite, concrete problem involving red brains, not pink ones.

Throughout the first ten years of a child's school life, too much is made of subject matter and not enough of the mechanics that

as well as not could accompany it, did we not project our experiences for those of the child. The tendency is likely to be in this direction for some time to come, for text-books, courses of study and teachers seem to be of the opinion that attention to mechanics has a tendency to strangle fluency. That point of view is much easier on the teachers, of course; teaching mechanics makes the work more difficult for both pupil and teacher.

From the rumblings heard in business offices, a change of policy in teaching written composition will probably start, unfortunately, outside the realm of pedagogy. Unquestionably employers of high school graduates as stenographers—admitting a course in business college—have the best of the argument. Something really is wrong when it requires twelve years in school to learn to write, imperfectly, a letter although that letter is dictated. Of what use is fluency, unless it can be put up ready for use? One should learn much about his language in twelve years; the French manage to.

A vast amount of informational data concerning written composition has been collected by educators during the last several years. And some of their findings are not at all flattering or comfortable to teachers of English; in fact, some of these fairly shout of what resembles gross negligence.

Purdue University gives the following theme as the type of work done by the average freshman applying there for entrance:

> "Last summer a friend and I went fishing to a near-by stream. We fished very steady for about thirty-minutes, and had no luck. Then we changed locations. Here we caught Forty fair sized bass, in a little less than an hour. Then we quit fishing, and went swimming. We were in the water about three fourths of an hour. Then we dressed. Took a rest under a near-by tree. After we had layed as long as we cared to, we tryed our luck fishing again. But we had no luck at the first place we tryed so we went up stream a short way. Here we had another streak of good luck. After we were tired fishing we divided our fish, and each of went our way home."

Someone says: "Oh, I know plenty of fourth-grade children who can beat that; guess there is some mistake about it." This does not represent the best that all freshmen entering college can do—merely what the average person entering college does. It is indeed an eloquent commentary on our system of easy standards in written composition—our practice of accepting inferior work, or mollycoddling the children.

Perhaps, when colleges and high schools show greater concern for what is being done in the elementary grades; when we have developed a language-consciousness to the extent that our mother-tongue takes precedence over grades and degrees; when councils are composed of three sections instead of two,—college, high school and elementary school,—then the day of low standards in written composition will have passed, and mollycoddling in this respect will be a thing unknown.

Roses

They bloom and fade beneath our eye:
Their petals fall without a cry:
We say they die.

A bud: a breath of sunny morn:—
In couch of green and purple thorn
The rose is born.

Through branch and leaf life onward flows.
The claim of death upon the rose?
Ask God, who knows.

Ask if it dies—(Hath death such power?)
Or lives a spirit-life an hour,—
As bud: as flower.

I look upon them reverently;
In beauteous bloom they seem to me
Love touches of Divinity!

Alda Dorothea Leaw,
Philadelphia, Pa.

American Notes—Editorial

Not long since two mothers were comparing notes in regard to experiences in bringing up their children. One of them spoke somewhat as follows: "I just don't know what is the matter with my Harry. I don't get along with him at all. He simply won't do what I tell him. He does just what he wants to, regardless of my wishes. It's terrible to have a child like him. But I am determined to conquer him. I am going to make him come under, even if it takes months or years to do it. He has got to learn that what I say must be done and done promptly. *His will has got to be broken.*"

Not infrequently a teacher will take a similar attitude and use the same expressions in regard to a pupil, or several pupils.

What is the matter with such an attitude? What is wrong in such cases?

We answer: "Everything basal, fundamental!" Such antagonisms, in the home or the school, are absolutely subversive of all that is right and good and helpful. They thwart the purpose for which homes and schools have been established. They destroy happiness. They ruin physical and mental as well as moral health. They are equally degrading to child and parent, to pupil and teacher. Yet they are common experiences. The case mentioned is typical. How can difficulties like these be avoided?

Usually, such troubles are based upon *a wrong psychology.* When the mother above referred to, said that her boy's will had got to be broken, she was less wise than angry. She had evidently approached her boy from the wrong angle. *His* spirit and attitude had had more of her attention than *her own.* What the lad needed was sympathy,—insight into his difficulties and needs arising out of his inexperience and undeveloped faculties. The worst thing his mother could think of doing was to antagonize him. He needed love and a sympathetic hand to lead him,—not scorn and a disposition to make him come under. To establish self-control we must teach it by example. To substitute considerateness of others for selfishness we must ourselves be unselfish. To displace a spirit of wilfulness and lawlessness we must guard our own words and conduct, so that they shall not be antagonistic. We should use methods that soothe, not those that excite and challenge. The moment we lose our self-control, that moment we cease to control others. This is true in war and in peace, in home and school, in business and in society.

We heard of a school, the other day, which illustrates the point we

are here discussing. It had had the reputation of being the worst school in the State. Principal after principal had failed to keep order. Teacher after teacher had given up discouraged. A new principal came. He began by discussing with the boys their sports and other out-of-door and out-of-school interests. He was interested in their problems and organized them,—letting them elect their leaders of various kinds,—and showed them that he liked to be with them for his own sake, and asked them to consider him, as far as possible, as one of them.

When the first out-cropping of the old spirit appeared in the schoolroom, he just pointed his thumb toward the door, with a significant gesture toward the offender, without for a moment interrupting the recitation that was in progress. The boy knew instinctively what the gesture meant. He felt the authority that was behind it. He had learned to respect the leader who did not scold and hate. He could not resist the compelling personality, which was compounded of righteousness, love and understanding sympathy. He obeyed,—going from the room; and came back later, cured of his rebellious spirit.

This is the way to *break the will* of those of our charges who are wilful. Get the psychology of it! The self-controlled, true, right, loving, sympathetic spirit in ourselves is "catching." It will win where all else is helpless and in vain.

Dr. Edward Howard Griggs, lecturer and author, speaking recently in Boston, declared that the highly specialized education and training of today will defeat its own aims unless it rests on the now neglected background of culture, or the worth of living.

"We need,' 'he said, "a revival of general culture over specialized education. In one way it is necessary to specialize. One-half of all the world knows has been learned in the past century, and the tendency is to drive a person into a narrow limited wedge of this knowledge to make his work effective. The cry today is for 'education for efficiency.' Even in the grammar grades this specialization is begun.

"We have lost sight of the soul, of what makes life worth while. Such specialization may defeat its own aim, because it can mean nothing except in relation to other things. A man cannot know Greek history unless he knows Roman, Egyptian, Syrian, and other histories. In industry extreme specialization does not make of man even a good cogwheel. And his descendants must suffer because of the specialization. Our technical schools are turning out marvelously efficient engineers, men for leadership, but uncultured. Their own lads are often ashamed of them, but they cannot even see that culture

is desirable in another. I have seen groups of salesmen in smoking cars, men who are the future business leaders, and whose appearance is attractive until they open their mouths. They have no regard for grammar. We have much education but little culture today.

"How can we expect authors to rise much above this public. In newspapers, a young journalist is afraid to write beautiful, accurate English. He knows that what is wanted of him is sensational language, and why should he give what isn't wanted? Reading newspapers today is the prostitution of one's literary taste.

"The average modern novel is little better than a literary opiate. To give an example: Sherwood Anderson was given a prize of $2,000 for his 'eminent service' to the literature of America. I read the book which won him fame, and found more than one hundred passages which were inaccurate or ungrammatical. 'Main Street' is filled with vulgarisms. There is no excuse for it; it is just slovenly work. Particularly bad is the journalistic invention of words to take the place of 'said,' such as 'twanged,' 'bleated,' or 'yammered.' Most writers of best sellers are ruined by their first best seller. It is sheer commercialism, the opposite of what must produce literature."

Dr. Frank F. Bunker, executive secretary, Pan Pacific Union, has published in the "Pan-Pacific Union Bulletin" the following comments upon the World Conference on Education and the Pan-Pacific Sub-Conference, Oakland-San Francisco, June 28 to July 6, 1923. We reproduce them in order to give our readers full and authoritative information of one of the very greatest and most significant educational gatherings in the history of civilization:

"The National Education Association of the United States sends cordial good wishes to the educators of all nations, and extends to you an invitation to join in a World Conference on Education, June 28th to July 6th, inclusive, at Oakland-San Francisco, in connection with the annual meeting of the National Education Association. The purpose is to produce a better understanding among the nations; to develop good will; to conserve the integrity of all nations; to extend educational privileges more universally, and to develop those ideals conducive to lasting peace."

Over the signature of William B. Owens, president, and Augustus O. Thomas, chairman of the committee of foreign relations, the National Education Association of the United States is thus inviting the educators of all nations to participate in what gives promise of being the most notable international gathering of educators that has ever convened.

A meeting to be great requires a great theme. Surely no convention can address itself to a nobler or more inspiring theme than that of developing good-will among nations, out of which comes lasting peace. The National Education Association, in calling a conference of the educators of the world for the consideration of such a theme, is responding to the growing recognition among people everywhere that the day of selfish nationalism among people must pass. Heretofore, the modern state has been so preoccupied with the task of overcoming the physical difficulties of its location; with increasing its population and supporting it; with developing its natural resources; with effecting internal organization; with enlarging the circle of its territorial jurisdiction; with extending its trade and consolidating its gains,—in short, it has been so busy with the business of obtaining for itself a secure and more ample existence, that it has developed in its people an attitude of mind that is at once aggressive, sensitive to offense, and narrowly nationalistic in outlook. Only slowly, reluctantly and incompletely has this attitude yielded to the conception that all matters affecting the relations of nations must be viewed in the light of what is best for all. The World War brought up the state which was dominated to an unparalleled degree by selfish nationalism, with a sharp turn, and, in teaching the arch-ruffian among nations that there are international rights and relationships that cannot be violated with impunity, it has conveyed to the sharpened senses of other nations, as well, that a new order is being ushered in, an order in which the idea of merciless nationalism must give way to the more genial and friendly impulsions which spring from the possession of the international consciousness.

Except possibly for the graduate departments of some universities, the school, as an institution, is a follower and not a leader. It reflects what has already been thought and done. It does not create. Its chief function is to "dig in,' 'to consolidate gains, to help in holding civilization's line of advance. It has never been a Moses going forward with glorified vision, leading the children of men out into hitherto undiscovered lands of thought and action. Indeed, in the entire history of the school, no successful reform anywhere has ever been initiated by it, though many attempts have been made. It is the mind of the group that is dominant that initiates things, and to which the school must respond.

The mind of the great world-group has said that there must be peace on earth and good-will among men must prevail. Sooner or later, statesmen, diplomats, generals, financiers, the captains of industry, everywhere, must bow in deference to the will of the group. It is the business of the school to assist in making articulate and

effective this longing of the human heart, which was never deeper or more general than now.

The National Education Association has invited the Pan-Pacific Union to hold a sub-conference of Pacific educators at the Oakland-San Francisco meeting. As the time at the command of the conference is short it is thought best to center upon one thing and try and get somewhere with it; so, out of the recognition of the great importance of the school as an agent of internationalism, it is proposed that an inquiry be made as to how educational institutions and agencies, everywhere, can best function in this field.

The program of the Sub-Conference, as it now stands, follows:

General Theme. How can the educational agencies of Pacific countries best promote international understanding and friendliness?

1. General Introductory Papers.
2. Chief Divisions of School Systems—Institutions of Higher Learning (Universities); Schools of the Secondary Division (High Schools); Schools of the Elementary Division (Common Schools).
3. Special Institutions and Organizations—Teacher-training institutions; Theological schools and departments; Associations of Teachers; Text-book publishing firms; Public libraries.
4. Special Subjects of Study—The Teaching of History; The Teaching of Civics; The Teaching of Commerce and Economics; The Teaching of Geography; The Teaching of Languages and Literature; The Teaching of the Arts; The Teaching of Morals.

It is expected that every country of the Pacific will be represented on the program by its leaders in educational thought and practice.

The Department of the Interior, through the Bureau of Education, announces the receipt of an invitation, extended through the Minister of the Czechoslovak Republic by the Czechoslovak Ministry of Public Schools and Education, to all the institutions in the United States interested in the program to send delegates to an International Congress of High School Professors, to be held at Prague, Czechoslovakia, during the last week of the month of August, 1923.

The main problems which will be discussed at the Congress are: Moral Education; Examinations at the termination of High School courses; The Relation between the Family and the School; Reorganization of High School Education; Education of Women; International Exchange of Correspondence; Reciprocity of Diplomas; Federation of Intellectual Workers; International Codification.

Further details in regard to the Congress may be obtained by addressing the Ministry of Public Schools and Education, Prague, Czechoslovakia.

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SUPERVISION OF THE SPECIAL SUBJECTS, with special application to Manual and Industrial Arts. By L. S. Greene, M. S. The Bruce Publishing Company. Price $1.35.

The author is State Supervisor of Industrial Education for Florida and Professor of Industrial Education in the University of Florida. This book is one of the first, if not the very first book devoted entirely to the subject of training for supervision. It gives a helpful diagnosis of the special function of supervision, and particulars about supervision of industrial teaching. It is a very helpful, suggestive little volume, and will be welcomed by a constantly enlarging number of school and college teachers who are called upon to perform services of this nature. There are four main chapters, which discuss: (1) the general field of supervision; (2) the executive duties of the supervisor; (3) the supervisor's duties of organization; (4) the professional relations of the supervisor.

I BELIEVE IN GOD AND IN EVOLUTION. By W. D. Keen, M. D. Published by J. B. Lippincott Company. Price $1.00.

The title is in itself almost a review of this sincere and effective presentation of a subject about which there is a difference of opinion among scholars and thinkers. The sincerity of the author is unquestionable, and he has presented a groundwork of evidence, which has materialized for him in his professional work, that satisfies the demand of his own mind, both as a scientist and as a Christian. His chapters are well worth reading.

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THE TEACHING OF FRACTIONS. By Edward Wildeman. The Plymouth Press, Chicago.

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READING FOR REALIZATION OF VARIED EXPERIENCE. By Sterling Andrus Leonard. J. B. Lippincott Company.

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WIND AND WEATHER. By Alexander McAidie. Macmillan Company. An admirable little manual explaining the modern principles by which the Weather Bureau does its work. The public, as well as the student of meteorology, will be interested in this manual.

PLANE AND SOLID GEOMETRY. By Walter B. Ford and Charles Ammerman. The Macmillan Company.

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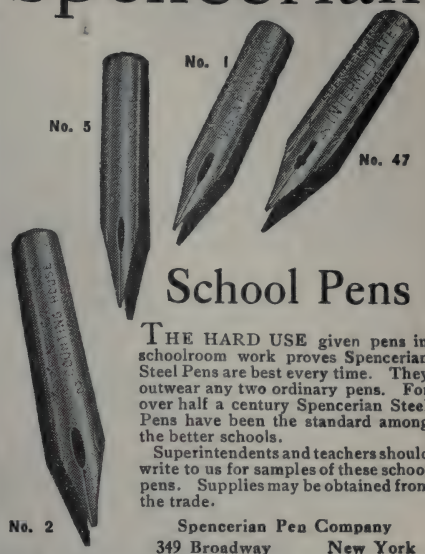

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Now, last month, our Printer's Devil kept well out of sight until we had carefully revised every page-heading and line of the entire contents of EDUCATION. Everything left our hands o. k. Imagine our feelings, dear reader, when we found that the Old Boy had visited the pressroom at the very last moment, when no one was looking, and had turned one whole line, in our leading article, upside down. Then, on another page, he had slyly substituted an "o" for an "a" and made an Academy "notional", instead of "national". The only thing we could say to express our feelings was, "The Devil"!!! If that is "swearing", we hope to be forgiven. THE EDITOR.

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EDUCATION

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The Junior High School—Its Origin and Trend A Study

FRANCIS L. CARDOZO, WASHINGTON PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM, WASHINGTON, D. C.

A MAN, seeing three stonemasons at work, asked them what they were working for. The first said, "I am working for five dollars a day"; the second said, "I am working to turn this into a block of marble," pointing to the object upon which he was working; the third replied, "I am working to build a beautiful temple."

As one reviews and reflects upon the evolution of the public school system in America, he is apt to draw the conclusion that, so far as the elementary and secondary parts of the system are concerned, its development has not always been purposeful.

"Inasmuch as each of the three divisions comprising the system —elementary, secondary and collegiate—sprang from separate and distinct causes and sources and grew to considerable proportions independently of the others, and in response to the shaping powers of different conditions, the whole, which the fusing process of recent years has given to us, is complete in form only. In organic relations, in sharpness of province, and in distinctiveness of function, these divisions are not yet satisfactorily articulated.

. . . As late as 1911 it was said of 669 American cities, 'Four hundred eighty-nine have a course of eight years elementary and four years secondary; 86 have one of nine years elementary (not including the kindergarten) and four years secondary; seven have the usual eight years elementary but offer only three years in the high school; four have a course of eight years elementary and five years secondary; eight are represented in the plans calling for six years elementary and four years secondary, seven years elementary and three years secondary; and 24 have made or are making significant departures from the foregoing types.' "[1]

Bennett, in summarizing the changes made prior to 1911, in the effort "to adapt education to the needs of the two periods of prematurity pupils," pre-adolescent and adolescent, gives the following statistics:[2]

CITY OR SCHOOL.

Boston Latin School; 1819; 6-year high school plan.
Features: Purely college preparatory; admitted pupils 10 or 11 years of age; still thriving.

Chicago; Harper, supt.; 1894; 6-yr. high school plan.
Features: Purely college preparatory; courses of study based on an elementary curriculum of 6 years.

Richmond, Ind.; Mott, supt.; 1896; 6-2-4 plan.
Features: High school subjects in 7th and 8th grades.

Providence, R. I.; Thompson, supt.; 1898; 6-2-4 plan.
Features: College preparatory courses, with foreign languages and algebra in 7th and 8th grades.

Baltimore, Md.; Van Sickle, supt.; 1902; 6-3-2 plan.
Features: Only brightest pupils permitted at end of 6th grade to enter these 3-year junior high schools; at end of two years of junior high school only best pupils permitted to take 3rd year in junior high school.

Kalamazoo, Mich.; Hartwell, supt.; 1902; 7-3-2 plan.
Features: One central senior high school, several buildings containing first seven or ten grades.

Muskegon, Mich.; Frost, supt.; 1904; 7-2-3 plan.
Seven grades all in one building; 8th and 9th grades in high school annex.

1 F. F. Bunker, formerly Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California, then Expert on Education, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., now Executive Secretary, Pan Pacific Union, Honolulu, Hawaii, "Functional Reorganization of the Public Schools," Bulletin No. 8, 1916, National Bureau of Education.

2 G. V. Bennett, Superintendent of Public Schools, Pomona, California, "The Junior High School."

Peabody, Mass.; Robinson, supt.; 1905; 8-5 plan.
Features: Change from 9-4 plan.
Philippine Islands; Barrows, supt.; 1905; 6-4-2 plan.
Features: College subjects last two years.
Marshalltown, Iowa; Palmer, supt.; 1906; 7-1-4 plan.
Features: 8th grade departmentalized and conducted in high school building.
Aurora, Ill.; Bardwell, supt.; 1905; 8-5 plan.
Features: Some high school subjects in 7th grade and also 8th grade.
Issaquah, Wash.; Bennett, supt.; 1906; 6-5 plan.
Features: Two grammar grades taken into 3-year high school and departmentalized.
Selma, Ala.; Harman, supt.; 1909; 7-5 plan.
Features: Change from 7-4 plan.
Roanoke, Va.; Hart, supt.; 1910; 6-2-4 plan.
Features: Work of 12 grades in 11 years.
Olean, N. Y.; Slawson, supt.; 1911; 7-5 plan.
Features: Best pupils finish high school at end of 11th year.
Ithaca, N. Y.; Boynton, supt.; 1911; 6-2-4 plan.
Features: High school subjects in 7th and 8th grades.
Concord, N. H.; Rundlett, supt.; 1910; 6-2-3 plan.
Features: The 2nd and 3rd year schools in separate buildings.
New York State; Draper, supt.; 1910; 6-2-4 plan.
Features: Elementary education completed in 6 years; real secondary work.
New Albany, Ind.; Byerk, supt.; 1910; 7-1-4 plan.
Features: Elementary education converted in junior high school education, merely by grouping all grades.
Alameda, Calif.; Wood, supt.; 1910; 6-2-4 plan.
Features: 7th and 8th grades in same building with lower grades, but departmentalization and principle of election introduced.
Los Angeles, Calif.; Moore, supt.; 1910; 6-2-4 plan.
Features: Languages in 7th and 8th grades; departmentalization.

The basis upon which these departments have been laid in European countries, especially Germany, has long been uniform and definite, well thought out and skilfully articulated. The result is that students there are completely schooled two years earlier than here. It is but fair to add, however, that the daily session is longer.

Somewhat recently, as stages in the growth and progress of educational institutions are reckoned, there has appeared a more determined effort on the part of educational statesmen in America to build "the temple of education" into a sounder and more solid

structure, and so, in looking about for its weaker parts, it has resulted inevitably that, after the long period of experimentation hereinbefore shown, the Committee of Ten on Secondary Studies, under the leadership of the Grand Old Man of Education, Charles W. Eliot, should have included the following statement in its report (1893):

"In preparing these programs the Committee were perfectly aware that it is impossible to make a satisfactory secondary school program, limited to a period of four years and founded on the present elementary school subjects and methods. In the opinion of the Committee, several subjects now reserved for the high schools—such as algebra, geometry, natural science and foreign languages—should be begun earlier than now, and therefore within the schools classified as elementary; or, as an alternative, the secondary school period should be made to begin two years earlier than at present, leaving six years instead of eight for the elementary school period."

While educators were greatly impressed with these utterances, the typical junior high school did not arrive until Superintendent F. F. Bunker of Berkeley, California, and Superintendent J. H. Francis of Los Angeles, California, organized at each place an "intermediate school" under the 6-3-3 plan, in 1910. Since then the emphatic endorsement of the movement by the master minds of the country has given this type of school organization such an impetus and placed it on so solid a footing that its future as a distinctive unit in the public school system seems assured. "So rapid a growth of a new institution, or of a marked modification in an old one, is unparalleled in our history," says Briggs.[3]

A recent contribution, outstanding in importance to the liter-

3 Thomas H. Briggs, Associate Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, N. Y. City, "The Junior High School." Without invidiousness it may be said that Prof. Briggs's book, so firm in tone, sound in judgment, clear in vision, has become the standard authority on this form of school organization. Aside from this book the educational world is indebted to Dr. Briggs for his contributions to the literature of education on many important technical and general subjects.

ature on secondary education, is found in Bulletin No. 35, 1918, of the Bureau of Education, in which, after a very comprehensive and yet detailed treatment of the entire field, junior high schools and junior high school education are endorsed in the following language:

"We, therefore, recommend a reorganization of the school system whereby the first six years shall be devoted to elementary education designed to meet the needs of pupils approximately 6 to 12 years of age; and the second six years to secondary education designed to meet the needs of pupils of approximately 12 to 18 years of age."[4]

It remained, however, for Professor Briggs, in 1920, to really stir educators to a realizing sense of the need of improvement in the organization and courses of study. In the work previously referred to are found the following extracts: "When satisfactory courses in the various subjects of secondary education have been worked out for the junior high schools, it will be necessary for the senior high schools to make corresponding adjustments in their courses in these subjects. This they have not yet done." He then asks: "What kind of work and how much, for instance, will be offered to pupils who are promoted to the tenth grade with two years' sound credit in a foreign language?" And further: "If a thoroughgoing readjustment of elementary school work has been made anywhere in preparation of the establishment of a junior high school, the fact has escaped notice. Without this preparation it is surprising that the junior high school has been as successful as it seems to be." Briggs had not only expressed himself in this emphatic manner in "The Junior High School," but had included therein, out of his researches, the following statistics:

4 "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," a Report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, appointed by the National Education Association. Clarence D. Kingsley, chairman, Hon. P. P. Claxton, Prof. Thomas H. Briggs, Prof. Alexander Inglis, and many others. Without a careful perusal of this bulletin no one can claim to be adequately informed on this subject.

SHOWING BY PERCENTAGES THE CURRICULA STATUS IN REPRESENTATIVE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

Subject	Grade 7			Grade 8			Grade 9		
	1*	2*	3*	1*	2*	3*	1*	2*	3*
English	100%	..	95%	94%	6%	..	100%	..	..
Social Science	62	12%	26	83	6	11%	20	47%	33%
Mathematics	100	..	..	83	11	6	67	26	7
Science	12	19	69	17	17	66	40	33	27
Geography	63	13	24	33	..	67	..	40	60
Hygiene	31	..	69	55	22	23	13	13	74
Foreign Language	6	75	19	6	88	6	..	80	20
Art	69	19	12	33	33	33	7	67	36
Music	63	13	24	61	22	17	40	40	20
Industrial Arts	75	25	..	56	33	11	13	80	7
Commerce	..	37	63	28	11	61	..	73	27

1* Required. 2* Elective. 3* Not offered.

Influenced by the exposition that has been previously indicated of the weaknesses of "intermediate" education, a questionnaire on junior high schools was submitted in January, 1922, by the Department of Public Instruction of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania to superintendents of schools in all sections of the country best representative of this type of organization. Primarily this questionnaire was part of a report of a sub-committee on the junior high school, authorized by and presented to the National Council of Education at Chicago, February last, by its chairman, James M. Glass, formerly principal of the Junior High School at Rochester, New York, now Director of Schools of that type in Pennsylvania. It is very suggestive. Space will not permit its reproduction in full:

"Unit of Transition.

"The junior high school is the unit of transition in the public school system. Its chief contribution to any school system must be the realization of its purpose to weld together the units making up that system. The most serious indictment against the 8-4 organization was the abruptness of transition between the 8-year elementary school and the 4-year secondary school. The junior high school will bring infinite harm to the public schools if its

organization results in the creation of two stages of abrupt transition.

"Courses of Work.

". . . It is, therefore, the difficult mission of the junior high school to continue a program of studies carried through the six years of the elementary school, modify and enlarge this program for the realization of its own purposes, and in turn prepare for advanced types of curricula in the senior high schools. It is plain that this can be done only through successive periods in the transitional process. Briefly these periods are four in number:

"*Adjustment.* Low Seventh (7A). A period of adjustment for the very young and immature adolescent of 12 years of age. He must be adjusted to a new school organization and to a new type of school administration. It would seem wise, therefore, to subject him, during the first semester, at least, to as little change as possible in the program of studies. Such change as is advisable should restrict itself to the inevitable modifications in the course of study which are consequent to enlarged school facilities and departmentalization. There should be no change in the program of studies occasioned by the introduction of electives. In fact, the tabulated report of the questionnaire shows over 50 per cent vote in favor of postponing electives to the eighth year. Present practice gives little support to any seventh year electives.

"*Exploration and Preview* (Apperceptive Basis of Secondary Courses). High 7th and Low 8th, 7B and 8A. There should be a period of exploration, when there is a preview of the specialized secondary school courses, which give one ground for distinguishing one high school curriculum from another, and when prevocational try-out is provided for drop-outs. This first general view of the secondary school subject matter is restricted to the 'simpler aspects' of the whole subject-field prior to any attempt to cross-section it into its parts. This general introductory course offers opportunity for exploration of aptitude for the whole subject-field and for a pre-view or apperceptive basis for the cross-sections of the subjects.

Properly, therefore, junior high school courses are designated as general mathematics, general science, world history, and general social science, prevocational courses, junior high school business methods and training, etc., etc.

"*Provisional Choice of Electives.* High 8th (8B). Following the period of exploration and preview there should be a period of provisional choice of electives. During this period facility of cross-over between electives should be promoted by every administrative device possible, to the end of guaranteeing that evidence of unfitness for an elective will be followed by a change of elective. In case this period of provisional choice does not extend beyond one semester, there would be justification for postponing promotion requirements in electives during this semester. 1. Periods of Articulation between Elementary and Secondary Programs of Studies.—The periods of adjustment, exploration and provisional choice of electives cover the first two years of the junior high school. These are the stages in the transitional process which should provide an enrichment of the single curriculum by the articulation of elementary and secondary courses of study, which should explore individual interests, capacities and aptitudes, and which should finally test the tentative choice in the light of actual contact with provisional electives. In short, these stages are the adjusting, finding, and testing periods to the end of developing a unit of transition between elementary and secondary education. They are the initial stage of the secondary school's program of studies, where the individual makes his adjustment between the en masse organization of the elementary school's organization and that of the senior high schools.

"*Stimulation.* 9th year (1st year of senior high school). Finally, in the accomplishment of the purpose of the junior high school to serve as a transitional stage in the public school system, there must be a period of stimulation to facilitate transition to the senior high school. The ninth year carries on the program selected after the experiment of the two previous grades. This stimulation is largely effected by the agency of the particular

electives chosen during the period of exploration and provisional choice. 1. Overlapping of the Four Successive Periods.—There can be no close lines of demarcation drawn in time and extent between these four successive stages. Each stage has a natural co-ordination with the other three. There is an overlapping which should prevail throughout the three years of the junior high school. The designated purpose of each successive stage cannot be fully realized in one brief period allotted to it. In fact, some of the stages must extend into the senior high school. It is true that in each year of the whole six-year secondary period there must be Adjustment, Exploration, Provisional Choice, and Stimulation.

"*A Suggested Program for Studies.* The program of studies, therefore, assumes a six-hour day and six one-hour periods; further, it provides for each of the daily six periods some prepared class work, with directed study, or some unprepared class work in health education, guidance, and fine or practical arts, or some organized or directed activity. The *prepared* work is grouped into the four major fields of study: 1, English and Languages; 2, Mathematics; 3, Natural Science; and, 4, Social Science. The *unprepared* work in guidance, health education, fine and practical arts is the fifth main division of the program of studies. *Directed* school activities comprise the sixth division. In brief, there are approximately four daily periods of prepared work, one period of unprepared work, and one period of directed activity."

A recent notable contribution to the cause of the junior high school may be found in the fifth section of the Annual Report for 1921-1922 of Dr. F. W. Ballou, the Superintendent of Public Schools at the national capital. Of Dr. Ballou it is said: "Dr. Ballou is recognized by leading educators of the country as an authority on the junior high school. As an educational administrator he has not only been interested in the junior high school movement as an educational development, but has also organized and supervised such institutions before coming to Washington."

In this document, among other important observations as to junior high schools, Dr. Ballou takes occasion to make clear and explicit the definition of the junior high school:

"1. The junior high school is a separate school organized on the departmental plan.

"The junior high school in Washington is a separate institution, independent in its organization and administration from either the elementary schools or the high schools. It is a centralized school, receiving pupils in grades seven and eight from the adjoining elementary schools and continuing their education through the first year of the high school. It differs from the elementary school in that it is fully organized on the departmental basis. Most of the elementary schools in Washington are too small to make it possible to organize the seventh and eighth grades departmentally.

"The junior high school should be a district school That is, it should provide instruction for all seventh and eighth grade pupils residing within a given territory. The experience of Washington in undertaking to organize the junior high school by receiving pupils from all over the city, clearly indicates that the junior high school should be a regional institution and not a city-wide institution.

"2. A school which receives pupils when they are expected to have completed the sixth year of the elementary school and when they are about to enter the adolescent stage.

"The fundamental purpose of the junior high school is to improve the instruction of pupils through a better adaptation to their needs of the subject matter and methods of instruction. The courses of study and the methods of instruction should be neither elementary nor high school courses, but they must be subordinate to the interests of adolescent boys and girls. Many pupils who have reached the age of twelve or thirteen years, whether having completed the sixth grade of the elementary school or not, ought

to be transferred to the junior high school, where differentiated work can be provided for them more nearly in accordance with their interests, capacities and needs.

"3. A school which provides three years of work covering, in general, grades 7 and 8 of the present elementary school and the first year of the present high school. . . .

"To organize the Washington school system so that it will include the junior high school means transforming the present 8-4 plan of elementary and secondary education into the 6-3-3 plan, the middle three years of which are spent in the junior high school. . . .

"In the typical junior high school the academic course of study will discard many of the reviews and some of the drills of the present seventh and eighth grade work. The junior high school affords opportunity for modern language instruction to those pupils who plan to take a modern language in the high schools. It substitutes a mathematics course of three years, consisting of a well-integrated composite course in arithmetic, algebra and geometry for the present chronological treatment of those subjects. The English of the third year of the junior high school should not be arranged primarily to meet college requirements, but should be organized in consideration of the fact that a considerable proportion of the junior high school pupils will not complete senior high school work, to say nothing of entering college. The science, history and geography work must likewise undergo thorough reorganization, such as the above courses have already undergone.

". . . The prevocational courses for those pupils who leave school early should be patterned after the most intensive and diversified prevocational courses. . . .

"4. A school which offers differentiated courses of study for pupils according to their interests, capacities and probable future careers.

"The junior high school will be organized for two general groups of pupils, namely, those who are going to continue their school

training for some time, and those who are likely to discontinue their school work at an early age. Those who are to continue their school work through the high school will be prepared in the junior high school to do that. Those who are to leave school early will be better prepared to take up some gainful occupation than are most pupils who now leave the upper grades or the early years of the high school."

I have thus sought to trace the origin and growth of the junior high school movement, and have attempted to indicate its probable future. From San Francisco to New York City, from St. Paul to Galveston it is now a well-known feature of public school systems. School administrators are fast agreeing upon a standard type of institution (grades 7-8-9) and a special course of study therefor, so that it is even now practically distinctive.

Indications point to the fact that it serves to reduce pupil mortality, and more adequately advance and protect the adolescent child, educationally and otherwise, than the old organization. Here, better than elsewhere, the pupil's bent is discovered during a "trying-out" period; here, better than elsewhere, his "interests and capacities" are revealed, and his "needs" are met. Were it for these purposes only, the establishmnt of junior high schools would be amply justified. However, evidence is at hand, from cities where junior high schools have been established for a sufficient length of time, to show that not only these purposes, but others of somewhat minor character, have been subserved. Senior high school principals and teachers report that the junior high school graduate, by and large, enters the senior high school better prepared and maintains himself more satisfactorily than one without such training. In this connection it might be added that, if the foreign element in this country needs special treatment, the junior high school, with its flexible and adaptable course of study, would seem to meet this end more effectively than any other unit of the public school system.

Based, therefore, upon so solid a foundation, opposition to the

establishment of this sort of institution must of necessity merely stay its course, if it affect it at all. Analyzed, the opposition referred to arises mainly from an apprehension on the part of taxpayers that the expense involved will prove too great, and yet it should be borne in mind that the congestion in senior high schools is relieved and the need for the construction of buildings for the accommodation of such pupils is removed as junior high school buildings increase in number, thus effecting a counterbalancing of expense, at least. Again, teachers of the upper grades, especially, fear that their own status may be disturbed should such institutions become widely established, and a distinct and definite policy relating thereto adopted. By means of special courses arranged for them throughout the year, by evening college courses entirely accessible, by well-organized junior high school summer courses, every incentive and opportunity are afforded teachers to qualify for the new work that is all but upon them. "Duty is clear, and the way is well defined." There are still others, increasingly less in number, who, in the exercise of a fair difference of opinion, do not concede so much to the efficiency of the junior high school, and remain without the ranks of its proponents until fully "shown." They claim that it is up to the junior high school people to prove their case, not by mere assertion but by well authenticated facts and figures. These are at hand in the authorities already mentioned and in the bibliography attached to this article. Throughout we have sought to supply the information desired. Without it no intelligent opinion can be rightly formulated. " 'Tis in the advance of individual minds that the slow crowd must ground its expectation eventually to follow."

While necessary to maintain the junior high school as a separate institution, at least so far as contact between children above and below it is concerned, it seems well to consider the desirability of placing junior high school buildings in such proximity

to senior high school buildings that the service of teachers in the latter may be employed periodically without affecting their status as senior high school teachers. The good effect of this course upon the teachers as well as upon the pupils of both institutions, would soon be realized. Grade school teachers look upon appointment to the junior high school as promotion; senior high school teachers do not view a complete change to the faculty of the former institution as being to their advantage. The course suggested will prove stimulating to the grade school corps, when found qualified; otherwise, depressing to the senior high school teacher. In this, as in other instances, if not incompatible with the maintenance of high standard, the line of least resistance would seem to offer the best way.

Pending the tortuous processes of legislation, out of which should come appropriations for new buildings, what may properly be done with the old equipment to advance the cause? What may be safely taken in the meantime as the first step toward this end?

It would seem wise to organize the upper grades of certain well-selected buildings into junior high schools, embryonic in form, and effect an affiliation therewith on the part of the teaching force of nearby buildings, so that a sympathetic relation might prevail throughout the newly-established group, resulting in a constant influx of pupils to "the center." It were well to retain at these centers, at least until full growth, the lower grades—grades 5 and 6—so that the "principal" of this unique establishment could bring about real integration therein, and also proper articulation between the two departments, the elementary grades and the intermediate grades. In other words, all would work promptly and steadily toward junior high school trend and form. Obviously until such time as these schools had grown up to full junior high school stature, the "regular" junior high school would be the beneficiary. The considerate and resourceful school administrator might be relied upon to make whatever adjustments such a situation would require for the ultimate good of all concerned.

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Woodland Joys

Through the woods in early springtime, I like to walk alone,
Down narrow, winding paths among the trees;
Chickadees are gaily calling, bluebirds flying here and there,
While gently through the branches comes the breeze.
Whispering, sighing, softly sighing,
Comes the breeze.

Treading lightly, ever watching for nature's creatures shy,
In bushes thick, or on the highest bough;
There a-top a bending sapling is a prickly porcupine,
Busy, gnawing tender bark. He sees me now!
Gnawing, nibbling, nibbling, gnawing,
He sees me now!

Where the path is worn and sandy, tracks I find, some big, some small;
And they tell to me a story all their own.
Here a deer has bounded lightly, there a fox has scampered by;
Woodland creatures going, coming, oft alone.
Day-time, night-time, going, going,
Oft alone.

Blue the sky and warm the sunshine, spring-time flowers all in bloom;
Sweet arbutus and the pussy-willow tall.
Many things there are to charm one, if the eye is trained to see,
And the ear attuned to nature's constant call.
Listening, hearing, looking, seeing,
Joy in all.

EDITH M. SHANK.

A Critical Examination of the Principles Underlying the Junior High School

Albert Renwick, Hudson, Michigan.

I. *Introductory Remarks.*

IF the plan for the junior high school is to be put into general operation, it is necessary that the specific changes which are to be made shall rest on sound fundamental principles. There is (as Inglis points out) always the danger that boards of education and school officials seizing on the general proposition without a careful analysis of the various specific problems that are involved, may encourage a reorganization of the system that may prove superficial and fail to solve the basic difficulties. There is always the danger that the reorganization may be one in name only, and that the real reforms to be made may be quite neglected. That this is a real danger is apparent to any student of secondary education who has examined the actual programs and the actual organization of many of the high schools which have recently been organized on the junior and senior high school plan. Many of these reorganized schools have entirely failed to carry out the changes which are really vital in the reorganization of the school system.

II. *The Nature of the Junior High School and What It Means.*

The junior high school partakes of the nature of both the elementary and the high school. It endeavors to combine in one institution the common school and the lower classes of such higher European schools as the French Lycée and the German Realschule.

According to Barker the establishment of the junior high means an abandonment of the eight-four system and the substituting for the elementary and high schools a threefold division, with six

years for the elementary, three for the intermediate, and three for the high school. It demands also a redistribution of the school population at least of the seventh, eighth and ninth grades, and a more extensive building program with new structures planned after the models of high schools, with locker systems, science laboratories, auditoriums, shops, and gymnasiums. It requires the adoption of the elective principle and the departmental method of teaching, a new and enriched curriculum for the seventh and eighth grades, new teachers with special preparation in the subjects they are to teach, higher salaries for seventh and eighth grade teachers, and a very considerable increase in per capita cost of maintenance. It is apparent that these changes can only gradually be effected, even if the board of education and the community favor them, because of the outlay involved for new buildings and the very obvious difficulty of securing an efficient intermediate school faculty.

III. The Purpose of the Junior High School.

In a study made by Thomas Gosling, it is pointed out that the purpose of the junior high school is to offer a program of studies which shall be suited to the varying needs of boys and girls in their early adolescence; to take into account the differences among boys and girls; to assist boys and girls to develop right attitudes towards life and its problems; to assist them in discovering and developing their natural aptitudes; to guide them carefully by a wise discipline through the trying times when they are passing from the period of control imposed by others to the period of self control; to take into account their budding idealism and their emerging religious concepts; to give them opportunities for expressing their social instincts in helpful and inspiring service; to correct physical defects and to build up habits of clean and healthy living; to acquaint boys and girls in an elementary way with the social, the economic and the political problems which they must soon face in the world outside of school; to inculcate in them, both by theory and practice, the principles of good citizenship; to

induce as many as possible to go on with their education in higher schools; and to give to those who must take up at once the toil for daily bread a good start by way of special, though elementary, vocational training. In brief, the purpose of the junior high school is to be the friend of the adolescent boy and girl by giving them a full, rich and joyous life.

IV. An Outline of the Characteristics and Principles Underlying the Junior or Intermediate High School.
(After Inglis.)

A. Provision for gradual transition:

a. The close articulation of each successive grade with the preceding grade, as far as teaching method and material are concerned.

b. The gradual change from the one-teacher plan of the elementary school to the many-teacher plan of the high school, i. e., the gradual introduction of the departmental organization.

c. The gradual change from largely supervised work to relatively independent work involving initiative, self-reliance and responsibility.

d. The gradual introduction of new subject matter.

e. The gradual introduction of election.

f. The gradual change of teaching method and treatment of children.

B. Provision to meet the need of individual differences and the different needs of society:

a. The introduction of elective subjects.

b. Promotion by subjects rather than by grades.

c. Increased flexibility in the schedule and its administration.

d. Educational diagnosis, exploration and direction.

e. Recognition of the needs of those leaving before the close of the course.

f. Provision for the economy of time in the case of the brighter pupils.

C. Flexibility of organization and administration:

This is in large degree effected by the above provisions. It may be noted, however, that the formal separation of the work of the junior high school into distinct curricula interferes seriously with the flexibility of the school.

D. Provision for educational diagnosis, exploration and direction:

a. The introduction of certain subjects which acquaint the pupil with several phases of activity and test his capacities and interests.

b. The introduction of some work designed to give the pupil educational and vocational information and enlightenment.

c. The administrative recognition of this function and the arrangement of administrative machinery to provide advice and direction.

E. Provision for some prevocational training:

a. The establishment of a course designed to give the pupils some knowledge of vocational opportunities and requirements.

b. Prevocational courses designed not to develop skill in specific trades or processes, but some knowledge and skill in the underlying processes common to several vocations.

F. Provision for the recognition of teaching material and methods:

a. The organization of subject matter primarily with reference to the capacities and needs of the pupils and with reference to the activities in life after school, not primarily in terms of the logical organization demanded by the subject as a "science"; e. g., general science, community civics.

b. The organization of teaching method to conform with the reorganization of material.

V. Specific Treatment of the First Characteristic—Provision for Gradual Transition.

Inglis discusses this topic in some detail. We will consider his argument at length.

He points out that there is one fundamental principle which is either neglected or misinterpreted in many cases, and that is the organization of the school system as affected by the nature of the development of boys and girls between the ages of approximately twelve and eighteen years.

It is constantly maintained (says Inglis) that adolescent boys and girls differ quite radically from preadolescent boys and girls, and hence that the methods and materials of teaching, the organization and administration of the high school, being adapted to the needs of the adolescents, should differ radically from the methods and materials of teaching, the organization and administration of the elementary school. It is further commonly maintained that the change from preadolescence to adolescence is relatively sudden and abrupt, and hence that a relatively radical differentiation may be made between elementary education and secondary education. Recent studies in the phenomena of adolescence have been interpreted to indicate that the adolescent period usually begins at or about the age of twelve. Davis says in this regard:

"The present mode of organizing and administering educational work in America is ill grounded. The adolescent period begins usually at about the age of twelve years. With the dawn of this new period come most notable changes in physical form, structure and function, and most decided concomitant psychological changes. At this period self-consciousness is born. The interests that formerly held dominant sway are cast aside. New motives stir, new aspirations fire, new goals beckon. Conscious logical reason begins to proclaim itself. The beginning of adolescence is most emphatically the beginning of the period of second-

ary education. As our schools are organized today this fact is ignored."

Here the proposition is clearly set forth that adolescence is a period of marked and abrupt change in the character of the individual, that adolescence begins at approximately the age of twelve, that the beginning of adolescence should mark the beginning of secondary education, and the implication that our schools can be organized on that basis.

If this theory is correct, if there is good ground for believing that a somewhat radical change takes place in boys and girls at approximately the age of twelve years, so that pupils at that age are radically different from those same pupils at the age of eleven, or pupils of the age of thirteen are radically different from the same children at the age of twelve, there is justification for making the sharp division in education between the two ages. The whole question is open to doubt. Three fundamental problems are involved. The first is whether there is any one age at which the individual in his development undergoes marked greater changes in his mental make-up than at any other period, with reference to inner growth alone. Is the nature of the growth of the individual such that there are in general periods of relatively rapid growth and relatively slow growth, or is the development essentially gradual and continuous, with no marked points of sudden and abrupt change? We have on one hand the theory of saltatory development, with particular reference to sudden and abrupt changes in the individual at the beginning and during adolescence. Such is the theory propounded by Dr. Hall and his school. On the other hand we have the theory of gradual development suggested by Dr. Thorndike, who holds that, in so far as mental traits have been measured, "they give no support to the theory of sudden rise of inner tendencies."

He says: "The one instinct whose appearance seems like a dramatic rushing upon life's stage—the sex instinct—is found, upon careful study, to be gradually maturing for years. The capacity for reasoning shows no signs, by any test as yet given, of

developing twice as much in any one year from five to twenty-five as in any other. In cases where the difference between children of different ages may be taken roughly to measure the inner growth of capacities, what data we have shows nothing to justify the doctrine of sudden ripening in serial order."

If the validity of the theory of saltatory development is granted, we will have two problems which must be solved before we should be justified in determining the beginning of secondary education at the stage of maximum change. It is recognized that the time of the onset of pubescence differs for boys and girls, that the time varies for either group, and that the duration of the process of change varies. Since we are dealing with a variable quantity it is important to know, not only the central tendency of the age at which adolescence begins, but also the amount of the variation from the central tendency. If, for instance, the central tendency for the ending of prepubescence and the beginning of pubescence in the case of the boy is found to be fourteen years, and the variation was such that the majority of boys began to be pubescent within a few months of that age, a working scheme allowing for adolescence would be possible. If, on the other hand, the variation is such that a range of a year or two from the central tendency age would be necessary in order to include even a majority of the boys, any definite adaptation or organization, subjects of study, or teaching method to the neeeds of the adolescent becomes impossible except in the most general way.

Dr. Ayres, in his report of the school survey in Springfield, Illinois, called attention to the fact that thirteen-year-old children were found in every grade, from the first year of the elementary school to the third year of the high school of that city. Inglis found in his studies that this was not the exception but the rule. What is more to the point is the fact that in many school systems of children of any age-group from twelve to fifteen or sixteen we rarely find as large a proportion as one-third in any single grade. Of the remaining two-thirds the distribution is commonly widely extended above and below the grade in which the mode falls.

How can we adapt the organization and administration, the materials and method of teaching to the needs of the adolescent under conditions such that in no one grade do we get more than a third of the pupils of any given age-group? In order to apply any scheme of instruction which accords with the theory of adolescence based on chronological age it is first necessary that we be able to group the children so the age group is fairly homogenous.

Says Inglis: "The argument for the 'six-six' plan on the basis of the character of development of boys and girls involved three problems. The theory of saltatory development which forms the basis of the argument is itself open to question. If, however, we grant the validity of the theory, the recognized wide variability of the age at which puberty comes precludes any attempt to organize our schools on the basis of the phenomena of adolescence. Finally, even if we should grant the validity of the theory of saltatory development, and even if we should assume that variability was small enough to permit fairly homogenous grouping, the age-grade distribution of pupils in the school system prevents us from adapting the organization to the needs of the adolescent in any other way than a general one."

He concludes that it is of the utmost importance that the reform of the work of the present seventh and eighth grades represent distinctly a transition stage, and the changes which are made be undertaken with the intention of providing a gradual and continuous transition in which the conception of radical differentiation between elementary and secondary education plays no part.

Accepting this conclusion there should be a close articulation of each successive grade with the preceding grade as far as teaching material and method are concerned; there should be a gradual change from the one-teacher plan of the elementary school to the many-teacher plan of the secondary school; there should be a gradual change from largely supervised work to relatively independent work involving initiative, self-reliance and responsibility; there should be a gradual introduction of new subject matter; a

gradual introduction of "election"; and a gradual change in teaching methods and treatment of children.

There is one loophole for those who argue in favor of the theory of saltatory development. They may say that from the first grade until the child finishes school he must keep pace with those of the same chronological age as himself, in spite of the great variation of individual capacities. In other words, we must do away with all acceleration and retardation in our schools and have regard only for the proper age grouping of pupils. Individual capacity must receive individual treatment within these groups. According to Curtis (lectures) this is the direction in which our schools are now tending.

VI. Specific Treatment of the Second Characteristic—Provisions to Meet the Needs of Individual Differences.

One of the products of the science of human nature is the principle of individual differences. As Judd says, the fallacy of believing that all pupils are alike was the fallacy of a generation ago; that the study of human nature and the needs of society have forced upon us a new conviction, namely, the realization that an individual, to be a productive member of a democratic society, must play some part other than that which is played by his fellows. In our schools we must provide preparation for the diversified duties of democratic society by giving full recognition to individual capacities and individual training. Children in the lower grades exhibit personal characteristics that deserve attention; but in those early days, when the fundamental types of learning are being worked out, the common traits of human nature are in preponderance. By the time the child has reached the fifth and sixth grades his personality begins to express itself emphatically in new ways. Having cultivated acquaintance with the fundamentals of knowledge, he now begins to make applications of knowledge to his own individual life, and the period of adolescence finds him ready to assume personal responsibilities and make personal decisions with regard to intellectual and moral matters.

That school alone is intelligent in its management of seventh grade children which recognizes the fundamental principle of individual differences.

David Snedden says that the psychological conditions which favor the recognition of individual differences in our reorganization of schools may be summed up in the two words, "increasing variability." Uniform programs of education (he points out), uniform methods of teaching, and non-specialized teachers presuppose groups of people of substantially uniform characteristics. All recent inquiries tend to bring into relief facts as to increasing unlikeness in children beyond twelve years of age. We recognize them as differing moderately as regards to height, weight and bodily strength; materially as regards abilities in such studies as literature, vernacular language, and history; and very greatly as regards abilities and interests in music, graphic and plastic art, abstract mathematics, alien language, and manual constructive work.

If, possessed of endless resources and hampered by no restrictions of any kind, we were making educational programs for our children, we would doubtless, in the light of what we now know regarding the unlikeness of individuals among them, make the program for no two of them exactly alike in all respects. We would pay tribute to obvious differences as regards the gifts bestowed by the gods of heredity and of early environment; we would strengthen some of his already strong powers, and where he is weak we might justly forego to strive for powers for the foundation of which nature did so little.

But, except in rare cases of genius or defect, it is not practical to educate children on the basis of strictly individual qualifications. In education, as in war, industry, transportation, worship, we deal with people in squads, platoons and divisions. To talk of individual instruction, except as that is practical within group organization, is to talk nonsense, except where the few children of wealth and rank are concerned.

In order properly to recognize individual differences we should

introduces elective studies into the intermediate school; we should promote by subject rather than by grade; we should have an increased flexibility in the schedule and its administration; we should provide for educational diagnosis, exploration and direction; we should recognize the needs of those leaving before the close of the course; and we should provide for the economy of time in the case of brighter pupils.

Flexibility in organization and administration is in large degree effected by the above provisions. It may be noted, however, that the formal separation of the work of the junior high school interferes seriously with the flexibility of the school.

VII. Specific Treatment of the Characteristics—Provision for Educational Diagnosis, Exploration and Direction—Provision for Pre-Vocational Education—Provision for the Reorganization of Teaching Material and Methods.

Some of the lessons of the war should guide us in reconstructing our system of public schools, according to T. W. Gosling. He says that there is no doubt that in the years lying before us we must give more attention to physical training and hygiene, more attention to the natural sciences and to the social sciences, including history, geography, sociology, economics, civics and citizenship; and especially must we give more attention to the development of the spirit of co-operation, of fellowship, of community responsibility,—to what may be called, in brief, the socialization of our life in all its phases. We must also pay more attention to vocational training.

The junior high school, because of its strategic position both in the school system and in the life of the child, can most readily initiate the necessary reforms and can most thoroughly lay the foundation for the superstructure of the work to be done in the higher grades.

The physical defects of our young men, says Gosling, as revealed by the physicians who examined them for admission to the national army, are a serious indictment of our national policy.

Ignorance, indifference and neglect have left their marks in a lowered physical vitality. This state of things cannot continue. Since the penalty for our neglect is not only individual but national, the nation cannot longer entrust the physical care of its boys and girls wholly to individual initiative. National policy must provide for national interests. It is through the public schools that this new national policy must find expression. Consequently, from the earliest years the school must give conscientious attention to physical training and hygiene, to the laws of happy, wholesome and healthy living. For very young children this physical training should not be severe and highly formalized. It should not be theoretical but intensely practical and joyous. When children reach the age of twelve, the beginning of the junior high school period, this training should be carefully organized. Only the wisest teachers should be given charge of the physical training of boys and girls at this age, for while at this time there is also the greatest possibility of good to be derived from scientific handling, there is also very great danger of overstrain upon the heart and the other developing organs. Unless boys and girls of this age are given the utomst care, a kind of care that provides ample physical activity without excessive strain, there can be no reasonable expectation of sound and vigorous bodies that will respond to the demands of active life and the needs of the nation later on. These conditions point conclusively to the importance of the junior high school in the new training era which is just dawning. It is not too much to say that our success in training boys and girls will determine the success or failure of the entire program.

Another lesson of the war is that our national welfare depends upon a more thorough grasp of the natural sciences by large numbers of our people. Our neglect of the natural sciences has been most lamentable, not only because of the material value of these sciences to our national welfare, but on account of the intrinsic interest of the sciences to boys and girls when presented to them in the proper manner. The junior high school age in particular

is an age of inquiry. Children of twelve to sixteen no longer are content to accept facts merely as facts. They demand explanations of a kind which only proper instruction in science can supply. The science of the junior high school should be interpretive rather than experimental. It should aim to give an intelligent understanding of natural phenomena, thus satisfying the child's spirit of inquiry; giving him a wider outlook upon the material world, and laying for him, both in content and in method, a foundation for the more highly organized special sciences of the senior high school and the college.

The social sciences are quite as important and as appropriate as the natural sciences in the junior high school program of studies. History, geography, sociology, economics and civics are interesting to boys and girls. The national welfare demands that there shall be a widely diffused knowledge of these subjects, for the solution of the social, political and economic problems of the future depends upon the intelligent comprehension of the underlying principles by the masses of the people in order that the decisions that are reached may be for the general good. At present, although great numbers of boys and girls leave school at fourteen and fifteen years of age, and although these same boys and girls are to be the citizens of the future, entrusted with the sacred duty of determining by their ballots what the destiny of the nation shall be, but little effort is made in the school to give them an insight into the fundamental principles of sociology and economics upon which the wise exercise of that right of suffrage must depend. With the social, as well as the natural sciences, what is needed is a remaking of both the content and method of instruction, to the end that the pupils at their most impressionable and most enquiring years may find satisfactory answers to their questions and profitable avenues for the expression of their budding social instincts.

The war served to bring out into stronger relief a need of which we have been conscious somewhat vaguely for a long time. It is the need of making the education which the pupils receive in

school link up more closely with life outside. Though it has been proved by statistics that as a class children who remain in school the longest have the highest earning power as men and women in the work of the world, this fact has only a limited bearing upon the significance of the complaints that are made, for it is only a highly selected group of pupils who take advantage of the opportunities afforded by the senior high school and the college. By far the larger number of boys and girls leave school early. Even in the most favored communities they leave when they are fourteen, fifteen or sixteen years of age. The pressing question is, "What shall we do for these boys and girls in the few short years in which they remain in school?" This is essentially a junior high school problem, because the children are too young for vocational education in the elementary school, and the senior high school does not lure them within its doors in order to receive such training as it might give.

It is the special privilege of the junior high school to make a valuable contribution to the solution of the problem of vocational training. The junior high school is not exclusively or primarily a vocational school. It is the school for "all the children of all the people,"—the most democratic school that can be conceived, because it has a place for the rich and for the poor; for pupils who can be educated mainly through books; for those who can be educated mainly through people; and for those who can be educated mainly through things. It will meet the needs of all the various classes by adapting both the content and the method of its work to the individual differences of children. Not forgetting that "man does not live by bread alone," and that the great cultural inheritance of the race is to be preserved for all through a knowledge of the time-tried academic studies, it still will give an especially large vocational content to the instruction which it offers the pupils who expect to terminate their school life early. In so doing it will perform a large service not only to the individual but to the community.

A program designed to carry out these various suggestions would

provide for the introduction of certain subjects which acquaint the pupil with several phases of activity and test his capacity and interests; it would provide for the introduction of some work designed to give the pupil educational and vocational information and enlightenment; it would provide for the administrative recognition of the function and the arrangement of administrative machinery to provide advice and direction. The program would also provide for the establishment of a course designed to give the pupils some knowledge of vocational opportunities and requirements; it would provide for pre-vocational courses designed, not to develop skill in specific trades or processes, but to give some knowledge and skill in underlying processes common to several vocations. Again, the program would provide for the organization of subject matter primarily with reference to the needs and capacities of the pupils and with reference to the activities in life after school, not primarily in terms of the logical organization demanded by the subject as a "science," e. g., general science, community civics, and so forth; and it also would provide for the organization of teaching method to conform with the reorganization of the material.

Conclusion.

Thus, using Inglis's outline as a basis, it is felt that a comprehensive review has been made of the principles underlying the junior high school,—a review that any student in this course might easily grasp.

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The Humble Characters

I think I like best the humble characters,
Whose record ofttimes out-shines that of well known heroes.
They quietly for the most part pursue duty year by year,
Taking sorrows and rebuffs of many kinds, expecting no glory,
Yet finding something in life after all worth living,
Unbeknown to themselves becoming godlike!

O how richly endowed must life be with the noble and beautiful,
The immortal stuff of which men fit to inhabit eternity are made,
When by processes slow to be sure are fashioned these characters
existing all about us,
Radiant as gems in the crown of their Maker!

HELEN CARY CHADWICK.

A Study of School Marks

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I.

THERE are a good many questions to be asked about school marks. Some of the more radical educators take the view that marks do not mean anything and so are not worth much investigation. Others think of them as the alpha and omega of school work and worship them as such. It would seem that somewhere there is a golden mean between the two extremes of these different view points. Certainly, if marks mean nothing at all, we are wasting a large part of our time in assigning them. On the other hand, few of us believe when we mark one pupil 93 and another 94 that we possess sufficient discrimination to recognize a difference of ability of one per-cent. To many of us, marks are a necessary evil,—useful to a certain degree.

Before taking up the results of an examination of 12,000 school marks, the writer would like to state briefly his philosophy of a marking system.

1. Since the American Educational System depends so much upon examinations and recitations, it is necessary that the pupils be assigned marks to show at least roughly their mastery of the subjects.

2. Although for convenience the percentage system is used in many of our schools and colleges, as a matter of fact, the trained teacher has difficulty in recognizing more than five different grades of school work,—excellent, good, fair, passing, and poor.

3. The grade of "passing" means *the minimum amount of work which will be* accepted for a given course. Whether the passing mark is 50, 60, 70, 75, makes relatively little difference, for the passing mark always means the minimum requirement. *Standards*

of requirement may be raised or lowered without affecting the marking system and conversely, the system of marking may be raised and lowered without interfering with the standards. A school with a passing mark of 60 *may* have as high or a higher standard as one with a passing mark of seventy-five.

4. Minimum standards differ for the various subjects; in other words, each school subject insists that the marking system fit its particular needs. Since subjects vary in difficulty, a passing grade in one subject may require as much application and study as a 'good' grade in another. Failure in one subject sometimes is eight times as great as failure in another.

5. As yet marks contain both an objective and a subjective element. It is the duty of the instructor to minimize the subjective element as much as possible. It is obviously unfair for one teacher in a subject to assign honor grades to fully forty percent of her students, while another teacher of the same subject assigns honor grades to but ten percent. While we readily grant that classes differ, it is nevertheless legitimate to attempt to make school standards as objective as possible. Unless there are unusual factors in the problem of school standards (as for example, assigning one teacher classes of bright students while giving another the dull pupils) teachers' marks should not show such vast individual variation.

II.

In order to secure some data upon the various problems of school marks, the writer made the following study at Central High School, Syracuse, New York. Each teacher in the school submitted a copy of her mid-term marks for the fall term of 1921. These lists were arranged by teacher, by subject and by department, and the writer spent considerably over one hundred hours in compiling various summaries of results. Later the failures of the mid-term were checked against the actual failure which occurred at the end of the term. It is with the hope that the following tables of statistics will assist the formation of a more scientific, objective

system of marking, even though such assistance must necessarily be slight, that the writer submits the following data.

The tables of marks are groups so that they may throw some light upon the following school problems:

A. The percentage of subject failure. Pupil failure. Class failure.

B. Grades by subject.

C. Comparison of Departments.

D. Variation in teachers' marks.

A. The percentages of actual subject failure for the spring term of 1921 were as follows:

English	Latin	Modern Languages	History and Civics	Science	Math.
10.1%	17.8%	15.5%	4.8%	10%	41.9%

The fact should be pointed out that while all students take English and Mathematics they do not all take Latin, Modern Languages, History and Science, hence the last named subjects are favored slightly in the statistics given.

The subject failure per pupil was .8,—that is to say that the number of failures in all subjects as compared with the number of pupils enrolled in the school was .8 failure per pupil.

Failures by Classes.

Seniors furnished 9.3% of the total number of subject failures.
Juniors furnished 23.6% of the total number of subject failures.
Sophomores furnished 26.1% of the total number of subject failures.
Freshmen furnished 41% of the total number of subject failures.

B. Grades by Subject.

ENGLISH.

	90 and above	85-89	80-84	75-79	Below 75 (failure)
1—1 English	16.6%	25.9%	21.3%	18.8%	*17.5%*
1—2 English	21.8	16.5	26.3	23.4	11.9
2—1 English	18.8	33.0	31.2	12.6	4.5
2—2 English	*13.9*	25.4	27.8	23.6	9.5
3—1 English	20.0	21.4	32.4	13.8	12.4
3—2 English	20.8	34.9	26.4	13.5	*4.3*
4—1 English	*26.1*	29.8	18.9	11.7	13.5
4—2 English	21.6	24.4	26.7	18.2	9.1

LATIN.

1—1 Latin	25.6%	20.3%	18.2%	15.6%	20.3%
1—2 Latin	17.9	17.9	22.8	26.7	14.6
2—1 Latin	14.4	17.2	24.6	19.2	24.6
2—2 Latin	*12.5*	12.5	13.4	28.2	*33.4*
3—1 Latin	17.9	7.5	23.8	25.4	25.4
3—2 Latin	24.6	26.0	13.0	23.2	13.0
4—1 Latin	*50.0*	25.0	.6	18.7	*0.0*
4—2 Latin	43.7	25.0	12.5	18.7	*0.0*

MODERN LANGUAGES.

	90 and above	85-89	80-84	75-79	Below 75 (failure)
1—1 French	13.9%	12.8%	24.1%	25.1%	24.1%
1—2 French	11.9	19.7	18.3	23.9	26.0
2—1 French	11.6	10.3	21.2	30.3	26.4
2—2 French	18.2	16.5	15.7	19.1	30.4
3—1 French	*4.6*	16.3	18.6	11.6	*48.8*
3—2 French	*26.5*	8.2	18.4	28.6	*18.4*
1—1 Spanish	41.6	20.8	8.4	12.5	16.7
1—2 Spanish	21.4	7.1	14.3	42.9	14.3
2—1 Spanish	33.3	16.6	0.0	33.3	16.6
2—2 Spanish	100.00	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

MATHEMATICS

Elemen. Algebra	18.9%	12.0%	15.1%	18.0%	36.0%
Adv. Algebra	15.6	12.8	15.2	16.6	39.8
Plane Geometry	13.3	12.1	22.2	20.6	31.7
Solid Geometry	*6.2*	6.2	21.8	37.5	28.1
Trigonometry	*34.3*	2.9	20.0	22.8	*20.0*
Com. Arithmetic	*3.7*	12.2	19.5	14.5	*50.0*

HISTORY AND CIVICS.

Amer. History	*15.8%*	29.2%	29.2%	15.8%	10.1%
World History	18.5	14.1	20.8	20.8	*26.1*
Civics	*25.3*	27.5	21.6	14.4	11.2
Economics	21.6	25.0	21.6	25.0	*6.7*

SCIENCE.

Biology	23.0%	23.3%	28.1%	14.2%	*11.3%*
Physical Geography	15.9	29.0	18.6	15.9	20.6
Physics	*10.0*	10.0	24.2	25.0	*30.8*
Chemistry	17.6	14.7	23.5	26.5	17.6
Botany	*30.6*	15.4	30.8	0.0	23.2

The above tables show two movements; lessened failure and higher marks for advanced classes, and variation in the difficulty of different subjects. By the time we reach the seniors, elimination has done its worst so that we find in practically every case a larger percentage of high marks and a lessened percentage of failure.

C. Comparison of Departments.

When we compare the results of the various departments, we come face to face with a serious school problem. Evidently some

subjects are far harder to high school students than are others. Are our easy subjects too easy, or are our hard subjects too hard? Perhaps the answer to both questions is yes. Easy subjects like English and History would seem to require much less ability and application than do Mathematics, Latin, and Modern Languages. Should all students be required to take subjects when a large percentage of the group evidently will achieve nothing but failure? Admitting perhaps, that those who intend to go on to higher institutions of knowledge must meet certain entrance requirements. the question remains 'What shall we do with the pupils who intend to finish high school and go no further?'. No doubt there is no *one* solution to the problem, yet, like the sphinx, it stares educators in the face nevertheless. The varying degrees of difficulty of our various school subjects really deserve more attention than they have thus far received.

D. Variation in Teachers' Marks.

The tables given below show the variation in the marks of teachers in the same departments.

Marks by Teacher, English.

	90 and above	85-89	80-84	75-79	Below 75 (failure)
Average of Dept.	19.9%	25.6%	26.4%	17.7%	10.4%
Teacher A	*12.9*	33.2	29.4	16.1	8.5
Teacher B	15.1	30.8	31.5	17.1	5.5
Teacher C	18.2	15.5	20.9	27.0	*18.2*
Teacher D	17.9	27.5	26.1	15.7	12.7
Teacher E	15.0	19.2	26.7	24.6	14.4
Teacher F	*35.0*	19.2	17.9	11.9	15.8
Teacher G	19.6	19.6	22.5	24.7	13.5
Teacher H	23.0	47.4	21.4	7.3	*0.8*
Teacher I	14.6	20.1	40.3	16.6	8.3
Teacher J	23.3	30.8	30.8	11.6	3.3

Marks by Teacher, Latin.

Average of Dept.	20.5%	17.7%	19.3%	22.2%	20.2%
Teacher A	14.3	20.0	23.0	25.7	17.0
Teacher B	*12.9*	18.1	12.1	26.8	*30.2*
Teacher C	21.9	24.0	27.9	13.1	13.8
Teacher D	22.0	7.3	11.9	20.2	38.6
Teacher E	17.2	19.5	14.8	24.2	24.2
Teacher F	22.0	12.8	16.5	29.3	19.3
Teacher G	14.3	11.4	31.4	24.8	17.1
Teacher H	20.8	24.6	21.7	20.8	12.5
Teacher I	*44.9*	23.9	16.4	14.9	*0.0*

Marks by Teacher, Modern Languages.

Average of Dept,	16.0%	14.0%	19.0%	25.0%	26.0%
Teacher A	*24.3*	12.6	13.5	25.2	24.3
Teacher B	*10.5*	17.9	10.5	17.9	*43.4*
Teacher C	19.7	16.1	24.7	14.8	24.7
Teacher D	13.0	16.0	19.8	18.4	32.8
Teacher E	15.3	10.4	16.2	30.6	27.0
Teacher F	16.4	18.9	18.1	26.2	20.5
Teacher G	11.7	9.0	29.8	36.0	*13.5*

Marks by Teacher, Mathematics.

Average of Dept.	15.1%	11.9%	19.3%	19.7%	34.2%
Teacher A	14.3	6.8	20.3	23.4	35.0
Teacher B	17.7	15.7	20.4	21.1	25.2
Teacher C	11.6	11.0	26.8	29.6	20.9
Teacher D	*4.4*	9.5	20.2	22.8	43.0
Teacher E	19.7	16.5	14.2	18.1	31.5
Teacher F	14.9	12.8	16.3	7.1	*49.0*
Teacher G	10.9	18.6	27.1	26.4	*17.1*
Teacher H	13.9	12.9	12.9	14.9	45.2
Teacher I	*26.4*	7.7	9.3	19.4	37.2
Teacher J	19.2	9.3	14.8	15.9	40.6

Marks by Teacher, History and Civics.

Average of Dept.	22.2%	25.4%	22.7%	16.8%	13.0%
Teacher A	*40.0*	32.4	10.5	12.4	*4.8*
Teacher B	*14.3*	12.2	20.4	30.6	*22.4*
Teacher C	17.1	15.9	35.2	10.2	21.6
Teacher D	15.0	20.0	28.8	21.2	15.0
Teacher E	19.4	37.8	20.9	14.5	7.2
Teacher F	21.0	21.9	22.8	19.5	14.9

Marks by Teacher, Science.

	90 and above	85-89	80-84	75-79	Below 75 (failure)
Average of Dept.	18.5%	20.2%	25.3%	18.6%	17.2%
Teacher A	25.0	15.3	20.8	18.1	20.8
Teacher B	9.2	4.6	16.9	30.8	38.4
Teacher C	8.3	16.7	34.8	34.8	5.5
Teacher D	*5.0*	7.5	17.5	17.5	*52.5*
Teacher E	15.2	29.5	18.1	16.2	20.9
Teacher F	17.0	19.5	47.0	14.3	*2.5*
Teacher G	18.3	17.8	22.0	21.0	21.0
Teacher H	*29.3*	36.2	17.4	14.0	3.0
Teacher I	29.2	21.7	22.6	9.5	17.0

Marks by Teacher, Cooking and Sewing.

Cooking	14.6%	26.8%	51.3%	5.0%	2.4%
Sewing	12.7	29.2	45.5	10.1	2.5

General Comparison of Departments.

English Dept.	19.9%	25.6%	26.4%	17.7%	10.4%
Latin Dept.	20.5	17.7	19.3	22.2	20.2
Modern Languages	16.0	14.0	19.0	25.0	26.0
Mathematics	15.1	11.9	19.3	19.7	34.2
History and Civics	22.2	25.4	22.7	16.8	13.0
Science	18.5	20.2	25.3	18.6	17.2

That marks will vary according to the subject is expected, for

we have seen that subjects present different grades of difficulty. Also, we might expect to find a certain variation in teachers' marks, for one instructor might deal entirely with Freshmen while another taught Juniors and Seniors. At the same time, it would seem that there should be a certain rough agreement in the marking system of teachers. Certainly an honor mark ought not to mean exceptional ability to one teacher, and merely good ordinary work to another. It is obviously unfair to the student when one instructor in Latin has a failure percentage of 0, while another teacher in the same department has a percentage of failure of 38.6. It is peculiar that one English teacher should have 35% honor students while another has but 12.9. There may be an adequate explanation for this difference, but, at the same time, such a variation should receive a little investigation. Indeed, it would seem that any scheme which attempts to make school marks more objective and scientific is better than no scheme at all.

III. Summary.

The writer would like to restate certain salient points brought out by the study of marks.

1. The great mortality in the Freshman class presents a striking school problem. In another study (The Intelligence of Repeaters*) the writer found that although 57% of the group of repeaters examined were of more or less inferior mental ability,—the remaining 43% were evidently failing for some other reasons. If it is found possible to provide motives, or call forth motives in the cases of those who are failing from mere lack of interest, that will be a most notable achievement. At the same time, we must give more attention to a special form of education for those who are not gifted.

2. The relative difficulty of school subjects presents another problem for the educator. What is the answer?

3. There is a great variation in the field of teachers' marks. While there will always be differences, an attempt can well be made to secure more uniformity and minimize the subjective element as much as possible.

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The Values of the Classics

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N view of the studies now being made on the actual values of the classics in certain quarters, and of the recrudescence in others of the old-fashioned type of arguments in favor of these studies, a preliminary survey of the actual values involved is desirable. This paper aims to cover in a general way the more important of these values. The aim of this paper is to discuss the following theses:

First: Whatever values the classics have as school studies are shared by them with almost every other subject in the curriculum.

Second: A large number of the supposed values of the classics consist in transferrence into other subjects of material that could be learned with at least equal economy of time directly, and with greater interest by that procedure.

Third: The really valid arguments for the educational position of the classics are hidden under a mass of opinions and of inadequate verbiage that does more harm than good to the cause of those advocating the classics.

The writer of this paper is in complete accord with the classicists as to the desirability of the values and results in education which the study of the classics is claimed to give; but he is not ready to admit without evidence that these "humanistic" outcomes really occur.

I.

"Let us reason with one another"—not try to argue one another out of opinions or prejudices; rather try to pool the results of our thinking in order to have an outcome of some value. If we are

to do this, we must of necessary limit our scope by having a working-agreement as to what we are discussing.

When we discuss "The Values of the Classics," we mean of course the values that are attainable for the ordinary students in high schools and colleges. We mean furthermore the values that singly, in combination, or in sum (one student getting one benefit and another student another) are secured by at least a reasonable portion of the students taking classical studies. According to general educational usage we should consider a reasonable number as something over half the persons involved.

Moreover, we must at once avoid what David Snedden has well called "the fallacy of the exceptional teacher." We must deal with our subject as it is taught by teachers within the wide range that may be called "typical." These will not be the best, nor the worst: they will be the large bulk of honest, honorable and conscientious teachers, probably not filled with any divine inspiration as regards their subject, but showing the divine spark in their attitude and actions towards their pupils. They will not be great linguistic or literary scholars; nor will they be dull grinders of grammar. No two will be alike in power and knowledge; but they will all be successful teachers of their subjects as judged by their students and the public. It is more than likely that four-fifths, at least, of the teachers of the classics, will be within this group.

We shall, moreover, have to limit ourselves to the classics as taught in the schools today. This will mean that the courses are shaped primarily in accordance with the traditions of the schools and the requiremnts for college entrance. We shall have, for example, Latin beginning with some "First Latin Book" and such a reader as "Gradatim" or "Fabulae Faciles;" then a year of Caesar or Nepos; then Cicero, Virgil, perhaps Ovid and Cicero's philosophical essays; perhaps Horace if the work is carried that far. It will not be unfair to go ahead in our discussion on the basis of the typical student as one who takes work in three authors

among those listed, after he has finished the "First Latin Book" year of making ready.

In limiting ourselves to the classics as they are actually taught in this land and time, we are also limiting ourselves to the dominantly linguistic, rather than literary and cultural treatment of the subject. It is, I am convinced, a matter of actual fact that instruction in Latin and Greek has not gotten away from the linguistic emphasis to any marked degree. Moreover, this linguistic instruction appears to be directed primarily to the acquirement of one particular sort of power: the power to render into English, and to get by this rendering the sense of the selections translated, portions of Latin prose and verse whose general degree of difficulty is fairly well established. The use of Latin and Greek "prose composition" is, after all, only a means to facilitate this by giving greater familiarity with morphology and syntax. The term "prose composition" is put into quotation marks to emphasize the fact that it is really a misnomer: it is not *composition* in the sense in which we use the term when we consider "English composition."

II.

The first thesis of this essay is that whatever values the classics have as school subjects are shared by them with almost every other subject in the curriculum.

It will probably be granted by most defenders of the classics, as it has been by those with whom I have discussed the matter, that the greater part of the work involved is that of memory. If we consider the memorizing of morphology and of syntactical rules in the first year of study, the memorizing of vocabulary that goes in throughout the study, the continued memorizing of syntactical rules that also continues, we must admit that this is the situation.

Let it be here said that I do NOT mean that syntactical rules are memorized as sentences. The child learning the ablative absolute in Latin or the genitive absolute in Greek does not, nowadays, commit to memory the rule in the grammar. But he does have to retain the idea involved.

The modern study of the memory-functions in the human mind

has shown us that we do not have a memory, but many different memories. It would appear that there are several forms of memory involved in learning Latin and Greek. One of these is unquestionably the form of memory that may be called "foreign word—English word." Another, probably equally often used when the classics are well taught, is "foreign word—image or idea." Still another one is "relations for words within sentences." Still another is "word-memory for declensions, conjugations, and the like."

Of these, at once we may say that the first is involved in the study of any language. Therefore the classic languages have no psychological advantage on that score. The same may be said for the third,—and for the fourth.

If, however, there were evidence that these types of memory required large amounts of practice, we should have a case in favor of the more difficult languages and those with the most unfamiliar words: such languages would then offer the most value in this respect. On this score, it must be admitted that the case is rather strong against Latin, somewhat less strong against Greek. But German, with its "native" vocabulary replacing the Latin and Greek derivatives that form so large a part of our vocabulary, would have to be ranked as superior to either; just as French, with so many words identical with ours except for a termination or an accent, would have to take lowest place.

However, there is little evidence that these types of memory require special exercise. The first of them is called for in life-situations only when we actually use a foreign language. But the word-image type is that in common use in nearly all situations in school in which matter has to be held in memory. The study of history, even with the substitution of facts for dates, relies largely on this; the student of physics must know the signification of several hundred terms: here alone is a vocabulary not much smaller than that of the typical student who has had three or four years of Latin. The student of biology has the same requirement. In preparing for term-examinations when in college, I used to synopsize the courses by listing on a large sheet, in order, all

the special terms involved: I then made sure that I knew what each meant. My first half-year of Zoology (a part of biology as given in my day) gave a list of over 250 such terms. In mathematics there is this same requirement; agriculture has even more of it than the pure sciences.

The "memory for relations of words within sentences" is after all only a special case of a type of memory widespread in school work. The same sort of process is involved in recalling the steps of a geometrical demonstration; in knowing how to solve a stoichiometric problem in chemistry; in remembering the influences leading up to the voyage of Vasco da Gama.

"Memory for declensions," like "foreign word—English word," must be admitted as belonging only to the languages. Like its compeer just mentioned, it is a type of memory that is required comparatively little in life-situations. It is involved only when we use a foreign language.

Let us pass from the memory-functions to those others which are of more importance as elements in character and personality. Perhaps one of the most important of these is attention.

The importance of attention will be evident when we consider that "sense-training" and "observation" are really forms or modes of directing the attention. We do not improve the sense-organ when we "train the senses:" we train the attentive phases of consciousness with regard to application to specific fields. Just as we have memories, not memory, we have attentions, not attention. This may be illustrated by such familiar phenomena as the inability of the person able to notice a misprint in a book to notice the shape and texture of a leaf, unless also specifically trained in that sort of work.

The attentions involved in the study of the classics are fundamentally attentions to different phases of the printed languages. Owing to the requirements of the colleges, we have in Latin and Greek instruction only a meager amount of work involving the spoken word of the ancient languages, and perhaps a still more meager treatment of it as written by the pupil. The attentions involved to such an extent as to make it reasonable to claim that

they are trained in the study of the classics may therefore be listed as follows:

1. Attention to the differences between printed words (e.g. mensae, mensam, audivit, audivis).

2. Attention to the arrangement of the words on the page, as forming sentences, clauses, etc.

This pair of attentions can hardly be called unique. Certainly they are to be found well trained in the study of any language. It is exceedingly doubtful if the different alphabet of Greek does more, educationally, than disturb these attentions.

But the other subjects of instruction may justly lay claim to sharing them. The mathematical subjects, with their equations, require the same sort of attentions with at least as great constancy. The consideration of so simple a case the solution of the equation $2x^2 + 3x + 6 = 0$, or the working out of any problem in which an equation must be made, will illustrate the point. On the training of these same two attentions depends a large bulk of instruction in chemistry: witness the following of laboratory directions and the writing and balancing of equations. Such a problem as:

$$Na_2S_2O_3 + 2HCl = \quad ?$$

with its answer: $H_2O + SO_2 + S + 2NaCl$

will exemplify the matter perfectly. The study of history makes a similar requirement, especially under the modern method of using "source-books" and volumes of readings. The attempt to write a theme in good English requires them both. Even the commercial subjects, often despised as "too crudely practical," require them both in high degree: witness bookkeeping.

Passing to the associative functions of the type more often grouped as such, we must deal briefly with imagination and reasoning. It must here suffice to say for the former that it is hardly called into play at all in the classical studies as now actually taught. Nor, for that matter, is it called into play in most other subjects. Probably the sciences, with their implications of it in the working- out of chemical processes, in the trying of physical experiments, and in the application to human life of

the grand doctrines of evolution and inheritance, call more for imagination than any subjects save the pictorial arts.

Reasoning, too, is shared through many subjects. The modern course in history can justly lay claim to requiring some of it. Its place in mathematics is too obvious to need comment. Its place along with attention, in the examples from the sciences, quoted above, will also be evident. Its place in the classical studies is not very clear. Let it be granted, however, that in working out the structure and meaning of a Ciceronian period or a sentence in Virgil that fills four to eight verses, it has a large place. Even at that, the classics show no superiority over the study of German, the social subjects, or the natural sciences.

In justice to the defenders of the classics, the matter cannot be dropped here. The values of the classics, we may be told, consist in content rather than in the peculiar psychological processes supposed to be used in their study. A certain portion of the discussion of this phase must, however, be postponed to the second section, inasmuch as a portion of the presumed values consists in material transferrable into other subjects of study and into life-situations.

Let us then consider the inherent values of the classical studies irrespective of the possible infiltration of these into other fields. We are forced to inquire what content is actually learned in classical studies. A tentative analysis indicates the following:

1. Knowledge of the vocabulary of Latin and Greek.
2. Knowledge of the structure of the Latin and Greek languages.
3. Ability to read (slowly and painfully) Latin and Greek.
4. Knowledge of some of the habits, customs, and folkways of the Romans and Greeks—including perhaps a small amount of their political life and methods.
5. Interest in the first four items—if they are so taught as to arouse this interest.

Of these outcomes, the last two are the only ones that may justly be assigned any definite values in themselves. An examination of these values for Americans in the Twentieth Century requires

that we consider very carefully the kind of a world in which we live today. If we examine the social structure of this country and time, we shall find that in almost every way it shows the sharpest contrast to that of the Greeks and Romans. It is true that in the main it has been built upon fragments of the Greek and Roman social systems, but upon fragments so changed in their transmission through the Dark Ages or via the Moors, that the knowledge of these fragments is of little importance. Even such fragments as have apparently come down unchanged in form have changed greatly in content. The knowledge that "habeas corpus" (the Latin phrase most often seen in the newspapers) means "you may take the body" does not go far towards making us understand the function of that important writ. The Latin meaning of "per centum" does not aid appreciably in understanding "percentage." The Latin words embodied in our vocabulary have so far changed in meaning from their original sense, or have so acquired additional meanings, that Latin is apt to be more of a misleading influence than an aid in understanding them. I choose at random, from the Ayres Spelling List, the following cases in point: consideration, investigate, interest, elect, particular.

Our world, as I have said, is essentially a different one from that of the ancients. Our virtues are different: no longer is the Roman "pietas" a trait either esteemed or of great social value. Our social communication is different: the "oratio" is no longer potent; we rely on the printed word. Ours is a mechanical age: we enjoy the benefits of sanitation, safe transportation, and the like through agencies unknown to the ancients. Our economic system is different: slavery is gone, and modern imperialism in its highest and only successful cases (British Empire, the United States and Possessions), is a federal system unthinkable to an ancient. Racially we are not the same; we are living in an era when the "Nordic" and "mixed Nordic and Alpine" branches of the white race are the makers of civilization.

The knowledge of, and the interest in, the languages and folk-

ways of the ancients can hardly serve in any adequate way as interpreters of the modern world.

But there is nevertheless a case for a limited amount of study of the classical languages. I had the good fortune to study one year of Greek in high school. As contrasted with that I took four years of Latin. Fifteen years afterwards, with experience in teaching three sciences and having done original work (in limited amount) in two, I find that my one year of Greek has been of more use to me than all my Latin. Its use has been almost wholly in the ease of interpretation of the many scientific terms derived from Greek roots. Such words as hydrolysis, haemocoele, hyphoparynx, endosmosis, psychiatry, mesoderm, are more significant than they would otherwise be. I attribute this to two facts. First: the meanings of modern words of Greek origin are more directly derived from their roots than those of Latin origin. Second: the one year of Greek was the beginning year, in which acquisition of the vocabulary was the most important item.

If the classical languages were taught in one-year courses, for this specific end of understanding the modern vocabulary, the high social value of such courses would render them free from neglect. Unfortunately, such courses are seldom taught; worse still, one year of an ancient language is only too often useless for "academic credit."

At this point it is in order to consider whether the tendency towards the simplification of English spelling might render nugatory the effects of this phase of instruction in Latin and Greek. A number of the defenders of the classics oppose all simplification for this reason. It is not in order to do more than notice the absurdity of retaining one source of large educational difficulty in order to conserve a benefit to a very limited group of persons to be educated. But there is another phase: the classicists have continuously confused the simplification of spelling with the thoroughgoing adoption of "phonetic spelling." Now there is not the least chance of any adoption of phonetic spelling: "it is not our custom," as the Zulus say, to make sudden and wholesale changes in our language. During the last three hundred

years the more absurd spellings have steadily and gradually vanished one by one. That process still continues. For the most part the changes in spelling have been in words not derived from Latin or Greek; a few have been changes in words from these languages via French; a few have been returns to the genuinely phonetic spelling of the ancient languages or substitutions of the classic forms for the French derivatives (e.g., sulfur for sulphur; honor for honour). Even so sweeping a change as the substitution of *f* for the diagraph *ph* as the equivalent of the Greek letter *phi* is not likely to interfere with the recognition of Greek roots in modern words; and this is about as radical as any proposed simplification of spelling now before the public.

III.

The second thesis of this essay is that a large number of the supposed values of the classics consist in transference into other subjects of material that could be learned with at least equal economy, and with greater interest, directly.

This transferrence is, in the words of the defenders of the classics, admitted to consist mainly in transferrence into English and the study of the Romance languages. The elements transferred are claimed in both cases as three: familiarity with syntax, improvement in written style, and aid in the vocabulary. The second of these is not often mentioned except in connection with English.

The unfortunate practice in the past of teaching formal English grammar too early in school has led to a reaction; as a result, the modern trend has been strongly towards the entire elimination of grammar from the elementary schools. Under the old scheme of things, the inefficacy of grammar as a means for improving the pupil's use of English had become only too obvious. This very obviousness resulted in a wholesale abandonment of grammar, without any attempt to save such parts as might have had a demonstrable usefulness or value. The result of that has been to pour into the high schools a mass of pupils who simply had never

been taught anything as to the structure of the language: they had a few rules-of-thumb and nothing more.

The outcome might easily have been foreseen. Whatever grammar was learned, was acquired through Latin, Greek, French, German, or Spanish. The idea naturally came forward that one or all of these possessed superior value as a means towards learning the syntax of English. The teachers of English, haunted by the unforgotten nightmare of the old formal grammar, were unwilling to introduce into the high schools the needed modicum of applicable items of grammar. Thus the pupils had to learn grammar as it exists in a foreign language, and then work out, haltingly and on their own initiative, its application to English. No worse medium, save German, could be conceived for this instruction, than Latin and Greek. Fundamentally our English syntax is one of *signification by word-order*; equally fundamentally Latin, Greek and German grammar depend upon inflections for the significance of sentences and clauses. The contrast, syntactically, between "Dixit se advenisse" and "He said that he had come," is as great as between an English and Chinese or Zulu mode of expression. English has been called "a grammarless language" by classical scholars: and with justice. Its grammar is, as compared with that of Latin or Greek, almost zero. Only Italian and Afrikaans (South African Flemish) approach it in this respect.

Is it reasonable, then, to use a large amount of time on Latin for the grammatical benefit that can be acquired from a short and intensive course in English grammar: a course that is increasingly being given?

The increase of English vocabulary by the roundabout process of learning Latin and Greek may or may not exist. That need not here be debated: let us take it as a fact. But in the same amount of time given to a four year's course in Latin, the amount of reading in English—not only of English literature, but of books in English dealing with phases of modern life—that could be required and accomplished, is so large that the superior effect is more than evident. The useful "dictionary habit" is quite as easily acquired in working on English material as on Latin; per-

haps more so, in that the student of the classics is only too likely to think of the dictionary as a mere crutch for use when working with a dead language, instead of as an ever-useful aid.

The supposed benefit consisting in the improvement of English style is open to serious doubt. This is first of all due to lack of evidence as to the effect. We have no actual studies: we have only opinions from partizans. Such opinions are invalidated by two causes.

The first cause is the failure to distinguish "cause and effect" from "two effects of one cause." We do not know how much of the superior English style of those who have studied Latin and Greek or Latin alone is due to the innate ability which has led to taking up these difficult studies. Nor do we know how much of it is due to good instruction in writing English before the study of Latin was begun; nor how much is due to innate language-ability as distinguished from general ability. The partizans of the classics complacently ascribe it all to the effects of the classical studies. Thanks to the data accumulated when Latin was required for admission to the Harris Teachers' College at St. Louis, it is quite definitely known that the study of Latin acts as a "hurdle" over which only those of either high mental ability or rather continuous volition can pass. Is it rash to say that a large part of the supposed benefit of studying Latin elsewhere is of the same nature?

The other cause is rooted in an inadequate standard of good English. There are unfortunately only too many who have not escaped from the predilection in favor of the long word and the involved sentence. Yet since the days of Macaulay the trend of good English style has been strongly towards

> "Saber-cuts of Saxon speech
> Such as fields and camps may teach,"

and towards a clarity quite equalling that of the French stylists. The use of words signifying vague generalities is today a sign of inadequate control of language; the use of long Latin derivatives is slightingly referred to as characteristic of persons of African blood. One does not need to admire the slang of O. Henry to

hold this view; a survey of the Atlantic Monthly as embodying the norm of good North American English, will bear out the contention.

The presumed benefits in the Romance languages are of such a sort that they might equally well be reversed. So able an American as Benjamin Franklin, in his "Autobiography," has long ago given the argument this direction. Let us not forget that the grammar of the Romance languages is only slightly like Latin; the resemblance is in vocabulary and morphology, not in syntactical structure. Our own language is indeed more like the Romance languages in structure than is Latin. On any consideration, the argument for French or Spanish as introduction to Latin is quite as valid as that for Latin as introduction to French or Spanish.

IV.

The third thesis of this essay is that the really valid arguments for the educational position of the classics are hidden under a mass of opinions and of inadequate verbiage that does more harm than good to the cause of those advocating the classics.

The points here are many; only the more prominent can be discussed.

Perhaps the opinion that is fundamentally most harmful and that goes with the greatest confusion in verbiage is that the putting the case for the classics in terms of the old doctrine of "general mental training" or "transfer of training" (often miscalled "formal discipline"). The work of modern psychologists has established quite definitely the actual status of the matter; I cannot do better than quote the words of Professor Daniel Starch (pages 212, 253 of his "Educational Psychology."):

"The amount of transference between the extremes of 100% and 0% of transfer lies nearer to the zero end and is probably in the neighborhood of 20% to 30% of transfer to closely allied

functions and from that point on down to 0% of transference to more unlike functions."

"The transfer effect of the training of the abilities in the school subjects is very much less than is commonly assumed."

This is a fair and just summary of the results that have been found in the investigations of the last two decades and which are given by Dr. Starch in the book quoted. Even the leading advocate of transfer among the modern educatiors, Professor Judd of Chicago, does not claim more than this; moreover, by insisting, as he does, upon the necessity for conscious and deliberate mental action for the greater part of the transfer occurring, he rather strengthens the position of those who believe it unwise to build educational values upon transfer of training. Dr. Judd moreover gives transfer of training scope only in the transfer of specific abilities and considers that they become general only *after* transfer by becoming then "generalized habits" and the like.

But the assumption in a large number of the defenses of the classics is that in learning Latin and Greek the student trains vague general powers, which may be transferred (apparently, so far as these writers tell us, 100%) to any sort of material and situation. The open-minded educator is naturally repelled by this sort of assumption; he is only too likely to conclude that the defenders of the classics, having gone astray on so vital a point, cannot have any reason in their further contentions. The open-minded educator also wants to ask this question: If the benefits of the classics consist in their general training, in what way are the classic languages and literatures superior to any other subjects that offer the same sort of training? In what way is memory better trained for words by studying Latin than by studying an equal amount of chemistry, biology, German, or agriculture? Another question follows: Why bother to get by "general training" benefits that can be secured more economically by direct methods or by the study of material intrinsically useful in the modern world?

The defenders of the classics injure their case also by thinking and talking in terms of the theory that the mind is composed of three separate "faculties" or departments. The modern psycho-

logists and schoolmen do not perhaps realize the hold that the inadequate and erroneous "faculty psychology" has on the thinking of the general public and the defenders of the classics. Nor do the defenders of the classics realize the complete inadequacy in the minds of the open-minded educators of any arguments based upon this system of psychology.

But the modern study of the mind has shown us that the mind is a unit in its action. In almost every mental act save perhaps those that have become habits, many phases of the mind's activity are involved. So simple an act as looking at a printed word involves sensation, perception, attention, memory, volition. The mind is distinctly not made up of separate or disparate "departments." There is no brain-center for "reasoning" or for "imagination." The physiologists tell us that all discernable activity involves the whole of the cortex. The defenders of the classics are prejudicing the educators against them by their adherence to a theory of the operation of the mind that does not agree with the known facts. Such theorizing is both opinion and verbiage: opinion in that it does not agree with the facts, verbiage in that it befogs the issue.

A combination of the two causes of difficulty is seen in the failure of the classicists to tell us what kind of memory, what kind of the imagination, what kind of reasoning, they consider as being involved in the study of the ancient languages and literatures. This eventuates in a total disregard of what is perhaps the most important consideration to the educator. The defenders of the classics do tell us or attempt to tell us definitely *how* and *wherein* the trainings they talk about apply either to school studies or to life situations.

Perhaps the most apposite case of this that can be brought before our notice is the argument as to a "general refining influence" produced by classical studies. We are still waiting for some defender of these studies to tell us what attitudes, habits, dispositions, actions, etc., are refined, how they are refined, and what "refinement" in this connection is. We want also to know how this refinement carries over and applies to such situations as occur in everyday life.

In truth, we are made only the more skeptical when we notice that the persons who ought to possess this "refinement" and "humanized understanding" are the more commonly found among the advocates of absurd ideas of various sorts. A type of this is the belief, found commonly among the persons educated in the classics, that English spelling exists at least in part for the purpose of preserving derivations and etymologies. The foundation for this statement of the purpose of spelling has not yet been stated clearly; the presumed function is simply assumed, and the defenders of it consider the opponents as persons of no understanding. Yet one might expect, in that the ancient Greeks and Romans spelled phonetically and changed spellings as pronunciation changed, that the classically-educated persons would have "refinement" enough to perceive the absurdity of their stand as to English spelling. It would not be wise to adduce other cases, as they are almost all such controversial matters that attention would be distracted from the main arguments of this paper.

V.

I am not asking that the classics be exiled from our schools. I specifically desire that the way be open for any person who may desire to do so, to study the classics intensively, extensively, and for a long period. I desire also the retention of such portions of the classical studies as have a definite and proven value, and the offering of these freely to all who can benefit therefrom. I believe that in this age of psychoanalysis, automobiles, appendicitis, technology, telephony, and biometrica, the student who omits a year of Greek is hampering himself in the understanding of the language of the modern world.

But I am trying to show that for the most part the classics have no values in education that are not shared by other subjects, and shared to an equal degree; that the bulk of their supposed advantages are illusory to the extent that they are not thus shared. Finally, I would appeal to the defenders of the classics not to weaken their case by talking in vague terms, in terms of psychologically false ideas, in terms that repel the educators who are thinking their way through to a definite basis for evaluating the various subjects of instruction.

Physical Education

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"'Tis not enough to know, one must apply;
And not enough to will, it is to try."—*Goethe.*

"IT is not a mind alone, nor a body that we are developing, but a man." The one can be made to appear at its best only as the other is made strong and useful. Each must develop alike, and to the same degree. Physical training is the regulated practice of muscular exercises under the conditions that tend to promote the health of the organism and to develop and discipline its motor powers. Modern science bases its doctrine of the human body upon two fundamental conceptions: that the organism is a structure which, by reason of the arrangement of its parts and the endowments of the living substances composing these parts, is capable of transforming and utilizing energy,—in other words it is a living machine for doing work. If it works correctly, we call it health—if not, disease—cessation is called death; that the grown body is the product of organic evolution, to whose outworking it owes its rank among organisms and its efficiency as an individual organism. Physical education is that part of physical training that has for its aim and end the harmonious adjustment of mind and body. It does this by building up a greater brain and nerve power through increased brain and nerve matter. Evolution in education considers each individual as a center of activity. In order for the education to be complete, after the child has properly adjusted his bodily activities it is necessary that he adjust his mental inheritances, hence the close need of physical adjustments being correctly made and developed. This idea has a physiological and a psychological basis, of which the controlling principle is that when we have certain bodily activities which develop certain phys-

ical qualities, there are developed at the same time corresponding mental qualities. Assuming the foregoing is correct, we have sufficient basis for supporting physical education.

Formerly education called only for mental development, but at present we define education as the superior adjustment of the child to his environment,—physically, mentally, socially and morally. And the best system of education is that one which goes out into the world and selects those experiences that the race has found to be of the highest and most economic use, and those experiences are largely filled with physical activities. This belief demands that we study hygiene and motor laws.

The laws that govern health are of great importance, as the mental activities are closely connected with the physical. This is true not only of individuals but also of nations. As long as Greece emphasized her physical training she rose in intellectual and political power, but when through luxury the incentive for physical activity was taken away, we find her intellectual and political progress waning. It was the same with Rome. America today can attribute much of her intellectual growth to the fact that she has vigorously encouraged baseball and other sports. The educational value is measured by the mind-body-and-character building of the subject. All labor is not educative. Work that is pursued pedagogically may be educative. Although followed pedagogically, if mechanical, it is of little educational value. Then it is only by the development of physical activities that man can attain inner satisfaction. In the large group the education of motor activities surpasses mind training. It is more readily attained, due partly to generations of training. Our system of industrial training is nothing more than a studied system of physical education. And some one has said, "Hand labor is the foundation and guide to morality." If we do not have hand labor we cannot expect harmonious development, and without harmonious development there is no human discipline, and without human discipline we fall to the plane of the animal. Since industrial training is physical education, it is well to call to mind

that its value consists in that it satisfies and cultivates the child's instinct for activity, and gives a chance for directing the activity towards the aesthetic and economic; it stirs up an interest and pleasure in labor; brings about intense work concentration, attention and perseverance, and nourishes thought and will. The educational value is noticed in that powers and talents are aroused and trained. The child learns to value, observe, test, compose and use. He gets a better co-ordinated brain life, better mental sympathy and an increased mental force and activity. It teaches children to love and respect labor and to appreciate the value of labor products. It helps the child to comprehend the social value of hand-laboring people. Social questions oftentimes can be settled by industrial training. Booker T. Washington claimed that hand labor would settle the social question in the South. Superintendent Carroll says, "The man who has some avocation, some skill of hand, some recreation that calls him abroad or leads him to the laboratory, has more joy of life than ever the recluse who feeds his soul upon vague mysteries of philosophy or upon the imaginings of theology."

In industrial training as a part of physical training it is not necessary that a trade be taught, but that the finer perceptions that depend upon motor activities be aroused in order that we may have a harmonious co-ordination. The latter is necessary if we would live in all parts of our bodies—that is, throughout our entire being—and enter fully into the life of the present hour.

For the mass of people physical training is for health. We know the body is the agent for labor, and that the mind directs and controls the body. The advantage is seen in the power for self-defense, fitness for responsibility, power of adaptability, and ability to create a favorable expression. Teachers must teach for health as well as for knowledge or conduct. Bodily health and vigor in education, both as an end and as a means, are necessary, since the aim of education is to be useful to ourselves and to the group, and to be happy when alone and when in the group. Schools should share with home, private and public agencies, the

burden of keeping the natural vigor of the child. It is the teacher's duty to prevent disease and remedy physical defects. We need a sound body as well as a sound mind or a sound soul. The teacher that is well trained knows and applies the rules of health.

The teacher should know and understand the modern methods of heating, lighting and ventilation. He should know how to adjust the seats and arrange the seating of pupils with regard to hearing and seeing. He should note the health and cleanliness of each pupil and, as far as practical, see that the best possible physical conditions be attained. Health is better than strength or grace. The correct and natural action of the heart and other parts of the circulatory system, of the lungs and the digestive organs, are as much needed as the action of the muscles of the arm or leg. Too many people in the past have had the idea that physical education meant the development of a boy who could make the greatest "drop-kick" on the football ground, or could throw a ball the farthest. If football in high schools and colleges demands that the attention of the best paid instructors in the physical training department be given to a very small percent of the enrollment, and those few the ones who do not need brawn and bone developd, there is something wrong. Many people think the present plan is destructive from the standpoint of physiology and health. Most athletes after their course of severe training quit suddenly—the relaxation is enervating, and destroys the life of the muscles that control the essential organs of physical life. The same thing is true of some of the games. The following quotation is taken from an editorial in a recent publication:

"Among the unhappy results of the athletic programs of many of the schools today are the special training, and often the dangerous overtraining, of a particular group of students, rather than the uniform physical culture of the entire number; the extraordinary efforts made to secure promising athletes for the teams, in which attempts the alumni take an active, and sometimes an undue part, indicating their feeling that winning teams are more important to the institution than a properly equipped and ade-

quately paid faculty; the practice of securing a coach who is successful in developing victorious teams, no matter what his moral influence may be upon the student body, and a willingness to pay such a man a salary quite out of proportion to those received by other instructors; and the stimulation of fierce rivalry between the competing schools, resulting in mass attendance of students at the game, and a growing tendency to gamble on their results. These and other considerations are leading to serious study of the problem by college and high school heads, and the development of plans to limit the area of competition and the importance of coaches. In some such ways alone can athletics be kept from absorbing an undue proportion of student interest, and becoming a menace to educational efficiency. Contests between the students of different schools are valuable in developing the physical well-being of student personnel, stimulating loyalty to one's college, and promoting good sportmanship."

The thing we desire is that bodily conditions be so changed that desirable features in intellectual and moral training may be attained. Mind responses are often influenced by bodily changes. For this reason the teacher should work with the parent. By co-operating with the parent, defects of hearing and seeing, headaches, neurasthenia, defects of motor apparatus, tone deafness, and various other defects can be either eliminated or controlled. It is not proper or just to require the tone-deaf child to take music, or to punish the child in the drawing class who suffers with contractures. Common sense demands that these conditions must be considered. To accomplish the foregoing the teacher should know bodily conditions of each pupil, and do what is appropriate to remedy them; and to allow for them in the arrangements for teaching and in estimates of pupils. The teacher that understands can usually seat the boy or girl so that he can see or hear and in a seat that fits the body. The nervous boy, if given activity, opportunity to work hard, soon finds his nervousness gone, and other needs can often be easily met.

In the country school it is not so much a question of restoring to health. The following named characteristics may be corrected:

slouchy walk, poor carriage, awkward movements, backwardness and self-consciousness. This is the noticeable thing in any high school that enrolls a large number of rural children. The children in the country have less chance to correct their mistakes through observation, hence the greater necessity for the teacher taking the matter in charge. Physical education should be compulsory, in order to prevent the ignorant parent or teacher having anything to say as to whether or not a child shall take part in that which cannot hurt him and by the laws of nature will help him. In order to protect the child from ignorance, the state should make a knowledge of the fundamental laws of health and hygiene and a knowledge of some system of physical education a condition of a license to teach. In the country school I would suggest such exercises as bring about correct postures, promote grace in walking and running, which cultivate rhythm and develop an admiration of the economic and aesthetic, prompt action, self-reliance, confidence, spontaneity and initiative. We are fighting for skill, strength, endurance and grace. If the child is not taught to control his acquired power he is dangerous to himself. The above may be attained by systematic physical exercises, manual arts, household arts, gardening, and play activities. Games are very beneficial, especially games that call for thought as well as for action, and if played out of doors where the physical benefits of good air, ample space and sunshine are obtained.

The playground movement is worth while. Play is natural. Free play exercises the muscles, improves circulation, increases the amount of oxygen used, stimulates the glands and digestive organs, pleases the senses, and gives knowledge for later life. On the playground unsought tendencies may be controlled and good tendencies developed. It can be real life, where imagination, imitativeness, observation, harmony, sociability, gentleness and unselfishness may be developed, and the child taught to find his place in the social organism.

Dr. Sargent says: "Cultivate physical perfection of the body and mental perfection will follow as a matter of course; neglect the physical and strive to force the mental, and the failure of

both will surely follow." The reason for this is that the mental life is awakened through bodily activities and gets its material to work with from physical sources and through physical means. Our sense organs furnish the ideas, images and sensations. And in order to use this material and make it the mind's own, it must realize its experiences in actual expression. Thus to make life the most complete, the physical body must be in the best condition, and the correlation of mind and body the highest. This is noticeable in the harmonizing of sensory and motor images. When we take exercise to develop the muscle of the arm we expect by the movement to train that part of the cerebral activity that corresponds to the arm muscle, the greater the degree of co-ordination between the part of the brain that corresponds to the arm muscle, the greater the educational value of physical training. In the gymnasium we call it form or skill. The correct way to develop the co-ordination is by getting control of the general or class muscles first, and work to the special muscles. Many of these co-ordinating movements are movements of imitation. At first, perhaps, the child does not use his mind to any great extent, but the initiatory movements induce interest. Games are probably better for the reason that there is a chance for something new to happen, and the interest of the child will be held and his mind induced to work. By systematic games the nervous system can be built up. The child can, if he will, control the organs of sense: as the eye, the ear, or the kinaesthetic movements. It is true that these organs have a certain spontaneity of action; but only as these are regularly trained and developed do they reach their highest efficiency.

Since all impulses must have a starting in the brain, the physical, mental and moral are more or less closely related. In order for these impulses to be healthy, a healthy body is necessary. Warner, in his "Study of Children," says: "It may be inferred that physical training tends to improve the brain condition of children, preventing or removing disorderliness in motor and mental action, and promotes healthy activity in other directions; this applies not only to children perfectly well made in body, but also to those in some slight degree below normal."

Dr. Stanley Hall, the great physiologist, states emphatically: "I plead strongly for physical education on the grounds of good morals. The child should think on the basis of the most perfect human tissue that digestive apparatus can produce; but when you see flabby muscles, bad complexion and other signs of dyspepsia or imperfect nutrition, it is certain to affect the thought."

Play gives a chance for character to assert itself. Formerly, and now where rightly conducted, the athletic games have the tendency to develop the idea of honor. This is a strong plea for the college type of game, and is well chosen when the physical director is a clean man. In the Greek idea we found two branches of physical education: gymnastics for the body and music for the soul. The idea was to harmonize the body and the soul. At present we often condemn dancing, one of the means that the Greeks employed, and rightly where it is used as an end and not as a means to an end. From the standpoint of physical education it produces rhythm of motion, grace and ease. Rhythmic spelling movements are an outward expression of the inward feeling. Music and art tend to develop the beautiful. The systematic rhythmical movement of the muscles in playing, the swing of the sound, its effect upon the auditory center, the color sensations in art, all tend to bring about a harmonious adjustment of body, mind and soul. The recreative parts are the attractive features of physical education,—such as tennis, rowing, swimming and folk-dancing. There is a certain rhythmic movement in rowing that tends to quiet the activities of undue mental exertion and to bring into play harmonious movements of the minor muscles. It is worth while for the pleasure it brings. The sports banish monotony and appeal to the initiative and motive of conquest and adventure.

We ask for physical education because of its hygienic, educative, remedial and aesthetic value. No one can honestly and consistently instruct children who does not hold our discussion in mind, and neither can any one be a complete teacher unless he sees a development along each of these. Physical education is needed because it is an essential means towards complete living.

Rechiseling the Freshman Curriculum

Edith Hamilton, Worcester, Mass.

GRUMBLERS in regard to the freshman curriculum of our women's colleges seem to be involved in a paradox. Their grumbling has come to be no mild and intermittent plaint; rather it is vociferous and constant. A comfortable growl by no means indicates dissatisfaction, but when a chronic growl, to which only those of nice hearing have paid serious heed, threatens to become a snarl, everyone in the neighborhood is startled into attention. Soon there is a running to and fro. At the moment, such a stir centers about the freshman curriculum. It would be natural to suppose that this commotion must needs check the throng of undergraduates coming on so blithely unawares. But nothing checks them: not examinations, nor parental economic complications, nor prophecies of sufferings to come. In one's moments of emotion these hordes of youth streaming into our colleges are a roll of drums, a glory upon mountains—all sorts of quickening things; in one's moments of doubt they are a suffocating fog in which one's way is hidden, a crushing weight that forces out one's breath—all sorts of deadening things; but most of the time they are just young people who must be given the best start in life that one can give them. However one may regard them, the point is that they are there. Since it is a fact that on they come to do and to be done by, is not one mistaken in supposing that there is anything basically wrong with the freshman, and perhaps the sophomore, curriculum? Would such numbers gladly submit themselves to maltreatment? Therein lies the paradox.

Yet there is abundant proof that the numbers and the complaints exist together. One does not preclude the other; indeed, the numbers make it all the more necessary that we remove the ground for complaint. One finds dissatisfaction expressed in the

themes of students, in letters from parents to college authorities, in talk with alumnae who are watching the careers of their young relatives and friends, in alumnae publications, which, presumably do not print unjustified fault-finding. With this body of proof at hand, one begins to look about for means to improve the situaation. Complete correction may be too high an aim, but improvement is surely not out of the question. Idealistic measures there are in plenty, but though one would not underestimate the value of ideals, it seems necessary to look first for practical and expedient curative devices.

Perhaps savoring of idealism would be the hope of establishing among valuable teachers a state of mind wherein they would realize the compensation of teaching freshmen,—not that they should teach no one except freshmen, but they should be sure that to devote a part of their time to younger students is not unrewarding occupation. The most loved, most stirring college professor that I know, in the year before her period of service in her college closed, taught joyously three sections of freshman English. For her students the memory of those classes is unforgettable; and for the teacher the experience is not one to regret. A distinguished professor in one of our great eastern universities, whenever any one congratulates him upon the number of youths whom it is his privilege to influence, always exclaims: "Privilege! Why, man, it's my daily bread!" But you can catch him at moments when his persistently comic spirit does not make him conceal the satisfaction that comes from his endeavor to give his freshmen the right start. Not long since, upon looking through an educational journal, I was struck by a Wellesley teacher's article, in which she maintained that the most stimulating subject in the college curriculum was freshman composition; there, far more than elsewhere, was offered a chance for the teacher to inculcate in her students the fundamentals that mean success, not only in their college course but in their whole life,—the laws of selection and symmetry and purpose that govern all good art and all good lives. I have often wondered whether a certain prominent

professor of Columbia, now working in rather distant relationship largely with graduate students, realizes the frequency of his references to the days when he taught freshmen in a little country college. From the human contacts of that period sprang many of the lines of his philosophy. Humans are curiously vain. It is not a tribute to the nobility of the profession to say that satisfied vanity is what holds many teachers in the work of teaching. Yet vanity and service are inextricably mingled. Let the student feel that his college needs him, let the teacher feel that his class needs him, and both experience a sense of satisfaction. Nowhere else in college does that need of the teacher more surely manifest itself than in the freshman class; hence in no other teaching so surely comes satisfaction. One day I met a white-haired teacher emerging from her freshman classroom. She was solemn, almost awed. "I wonder," she said at length, "whether I've been telling those children the truth. They trust me so completely that I'm frightened." The relation is complex and challenging, compounded as it is of emotion and good business, drudgery and surprises, a sense of leading only to the next corner and a sense of being led into infinity.

The teacher, young or old, who feels all this, will be the one to rechisel the freshman curriculum. Critics pretty well agree that the basis of complaint is not the subjects offered in the freshman year. Let us, then, not muddle over the program, but turn our energies toward making its contents into more delicate instruments. Where they are clumsy they must be given grace; where they are meaningless they must be made purposeful; they must be filed and shaped to fineness and firmness and flexibility of line. Such reshaping takes devotion, skill, a sense of pattern,—life's pattern. By force, fraud, or volition—it is to be hoped by the latter means—we must secure for our freshmen a larger proportion of teachers who can offer the more elementary subjects in worthy form,—teachers of distinction.

"To me," said an American painter in his recent autobiography, "modern education is like a puddle in the road—very broad, but

only two inches deep—and one must remember that truth has never been said to come from a puddle. In pictures, truth dwells in deep places:" she rises from a well. Freshmen courses are often taught by young instructors who, necessarily, have not sunk their wells to any depth. In the first place, they have not lived long enough to dig far, even though they have been skilful and diligent diggers. Frequently they have been occupied with what ought by rights to have contributed to the depth of the well but does not always show quick results; the securing of a Ph. D. Promotion comes more rapidly today than it did even ten years ago; still, the college budget may demand that an instructor remain in that rank for ten years. Even when he secures his assistant professorship, he is granted no sabbatical year. He may, rather rarely, be given leave of absence without pay, or he may resign to secure time for going about the world to see what systems of digging others have found effective,—but then he must run the risk of not being taken back. Moreover, it costs not only time but money to dig wells, and human beings are so constituted that they will merely sit back on their haunches if they see only $1,500 in sight when they are conscious of needing thousands. There are libraries on the psychology of students; who mentions the psychology of teachers? These are the conditions common to numberless cases; there will always be the numbered cases that we tend to cite. Travel, breadth of reading, social experience, are not the easy possessions of the average college instructor; hence the freshman is chagrined or bored or angered to find her college teachers of less distinction than those of her preparatory school.

Not many weeks ago, about the fire in Dean Briggs's living-room a group of teachers sat talking over the attack upon the freshman curriculum. "Here is an executive officer," said I, turning to the president of a college in the middle west; "tell us how you keep your institution clear of this fault-finding." "By being so small," she replied, "that every student is taught by a professor; each department is made up of *one,* the very best person I can secure for the position." Obviously, where hundreds are to be

taught in a single course, such an arrangement is impracticable; the problem then is how to offer good teachers to a considerable number; how to keep a fairer balance between bountiful and meagre teachers? The simplest method is to do away with hobbies in courses; to wipe out non-essential electives and thus set teachers of higher rank free to teach some under-classmen. We shall quarrel over what the salient courses are, and in a university or a college with a large graduate department, curtailment might mean strangulation of a student's aptitudes. But in a college where graduates are negligible—and it is just there that the criticisms of the freshman year have fallen most heavily—limitation of courses is imperative as a curative measure.

Nothing newer than egotism is the source of this multiplication of courses. Let a man override any hobby and sooner or later he will suffer from a perverted sense of values. He may spend forty years on the identification of Defoe's pamphlets; or twenty years on Lord Mayors' Shows. Then what in the world, thinks he, is of higher importance for students than sensitiveness to the idiom of Defoe or the style of a Lord Mayor's shoebuckles? Such an investigator possesses genuine love for his subject, and one respects his devotion and is excited by his discoveries. It is for none of us to despise any contribution to human knowledge. But the teacher who rides his hobby too hard loses his power of synthesis. He cannot see that his special contribution to the college curriculum should not necessarily be the result of the investigation so dear to him. Moreover, in some college circles eccentricity and scholarship have become confused: an instructor is, therefore, tempted to court promotion by building up some odd structure, superior only in queerness. Further, egotism is not only individual; a college as a whole will show love of displaying a great variety of goods in its front window. Our educational institutions have not aped the fashion so marked of late in Bond Street and the Rue de la Paix, of offering to public view

one costume by which to gauge the quality of the shop, or a single lovely jewel.

But there are signs of change. One may find them in curricula already printed; in the forming of department committees for the limitation of electives; and perhaps best of all, in the emphasizing of the power, in some colleges, of an officer whose special function it is to weave the pattern of the entire curriculum: no unit will be fitted in to please the fancy of an individual. Such an officer is usually chairman of a committee whose business it is to see that courses are given in response to needs, not whims; to estimate the growth in students' power under the influence of specific courses; and to correlate courses in unneighborly departments. Recently I had from a college teacher a letter that suggests endeavor to rechisel the curriculum,—rather drastic maybe, but the first cut is apt to be a daring hack: "We are working," the letter ran, "on an entirely revolutionary schedule for the whole English department, rearranging all upper class requirements, smashing all frivolous electives, so that now everybody teaches freshmen and sophomores, and there are electives in five things only: Shakespeare, Chaucer and Milton, Bible, Outline of English Literature, Nineteenth Century Literature; and these furnish required subjects also." Yet, the writer of the letter has for years offered courses in William Morris, and every June catches the first possible boat for England, so as to lose no time in continuing his study of Morris's art.

If, then, we would stem the flood of complaints against the under-class curriculum, we must discover means of diverting to our freshmen and sophomore classes more teachers whose richness of mind and experience enables them to give elementary subjects values that under clumsy operation they will never possess. Pure esotericism we wish to eliminate; it is more likely to mark the recent graduate than the older teacher. The less experienced teacher is apt to make his job too constructive, to endeavor to do good mental deeds among his students; yet, with all his effort, he does not vitalize his subject. No student wishes to feel that he

is being worked upon like the plans for new dormitories. "We catch more than we learn," said Professor Palmer. If we can, let us have a goodly number of our freshmen taught by some one whose distinction will inevitably seep through; who dares to be gently credulous; who knows when to be irrational; who is never unaware that his profession deals with souls. If we can manage such an arrangement, we may achieve our aim to fulfil and our hope to surpass the best ideals with which freshmen enter college.

Mary's Garden

To some, my Mary's garden plot
  Might seem scarce worth the planting,
For flowers grow in that favored spot
  Both grace and beauty wanting.

The clouded brain, the wavering eye,
  The voice unmodulated,
Might bring distaste with sympathy,
  For beings so ill-fated;

But Mary moves serene among
  These blossoms of her garden:
The vacant mind, the faltering tongue,
  Are faults that she can pardon.

In virgin soil she plants the seeds,
  (Adept is she at sowing)
With gentle hand she plucks the weeds
  That keep the flowers from growing.

She turns their faces toward the light,
  Poor little stunted flowers!
And makes their darkened lives so bright,
  They love the happy hours

They spend beneath her fostering care;
  They find new joy in living,
Because, to keep her garden fair,
  She spends herself in giving!

ANNA NELSON REED.

Editor's Note.—"Mary's Garden" was a School for the Deaf in a large American city, in which she dealt with intuitive skill and real affection with unfortunate and sadly handicapped children.

American Notes—Editorial

The first law in the art of teaching is the law of personal realization on the part of the teacher. He must stand forth as the living embodient of the gains which education represents. Each and every step which he would have his pupils take he also must take; and he must be willing to take those steps again and again with unabated zest. The test of a true educational method is that it perpetually renews the inspiration of teacher and pupils alike.

The true teacher is both exemplar and instructor; but example comes first and instruction follows. In the process of education changes are to be wrought in the nature of those being taught; and these changes should first appear in the teacher. His expression of them should be their recommendation. The impact of his enthusiasm upon the souls of his pupils should create the conditions in which they may be effectively imparted. It is well understood that no one can impart knowledge which he does not possess. It is not so well understood, apparently, that no one can communicate goodness, or insight, or spirituality, or the essence of character, until he has won these possessions for himself. The process of education becomes genuine and vital when the teacher and the taught travel together. For the teacher this should be no disadvantage. On the contrary, he should look upon it as his highest compensation. He is privileged to travel the road of intellectual and spiritual endeavor again and again; and through perpetual self-renewal he may gain the mastery in those things which he would communicate to others. The effect of this method becomes magical. Drudgery is eliminated. Teachers and pupils alike become treasure-hunters. Education is transformed into a fruitful adventure of comrades and friends, and the problem of discipline does not arise. The genuine teacher, like the genuine minister of religion, teaches by participation, and so enters into the fullness of joy and satisfaction in his work.

This is the age of the synthetic mind. We no longer take delight in the mere antagonism of opposing principles; we look for correlation; and we usually discover that facts or principles which stand over against each other in the natural order of things are not necessarily irreconcilable, but are really complementary. This is true of the art and science of teaching. Art is doing, science is knowing; and

the two essentials go together. One might think that science comes first, that we must know how before we can do anything; but, historically, the sequence is the very reverse of this. Everywhere men have first tried to do things. They have experimented; and so, by trial and failure, or trial and partial success, they have made a beginning, and then by reflection have learned how to do better. Thus art and science have grown together and should never be separated. They are co-ordinate and complementary principles. Without experience knowledge is arid and academic; without knowledge experience is unguided and unchastened, and may end in failure. To think of teaching as an endless endeavor to acquire new skill and gain new knowledge is to invest it with the charm of unceasing adventure. Each new day is a challenge. Each new year an invitation to happy exertion and higher achievement.

As in the experience of the teacher, so in the experience of the pupil there is only a verbal antithesis between art and science, while in fact there is the most complete harmony. To impart knowledge to a child is, in some measure, to educate him; because he cannot acquire knowledge without the exercise of his own powers, and this exercise is discipline and consequent development. Thus the pupil's acquisitions are of two kinds—knowledge and training; he acquires information and larger mental capacity at the same time. The power to know and the power to do are essentially inseparable. But the teacher's work does not properly end here. Knowledge and skill may be dangerous equipments, unless the soul of the pupil is inspired to use these beneficently.

We believe that the following clippings from the Baltimore Bulletin of Education will interest many of our readers in different parts of the United States where Americanization is a practical as well as a theoretical question. Baltimore is to be congratulated on its success in dealing with its "new-comers." Other cities should take note and follow the example. Principal Helen Stromberg, School No. 93, writes for the Bulletin as follows:

We believe that Steamer Classes in the Baltimore Public School System are unique, and that we are doing "our bit" for Uncle Sam in quickly moulding his adopted children into the greatest possible likeness to his native sons and daughters. Our Steamer Classes are made up of newcomers from Russia, Poland, Roumania, Lithuania, Italy and China, and naturally we find the widest differences in their background, experiences and education. At present we have four such

classes, and since September, 1922, we have handled nearly one hundred and fifty pupils, ranging in ages from eight to sixteen or seventeen, and with varying degrees of ability. In school attainments they range from the illiterate to those having the equivalent of an eighth grade education. But by careful study of the individual and systematic gradation based on the mental and chronological age, we have progressed in this difficult work. We aim to gradually place these children in the regular grades. Eight have passed to the Junior High School and ten are now in the regular sixth grade, preparing for the Junior High, while many others have been enrolled in the general classes of the school.

ADVANTAGES OF STEAMER CLASSES.

The value of the Steamer Class work has been borne out by our experience. When we place these children in Steamer Classes immediately on their arrival in America, their progress is decidedly marked, whereas the child who has first been unfortunately placed in a regular class-room and permitted to sit and drift, and is then finally transferred to us, is invariably a difficult problem, retarded in ambition and in application to work. If permitted to remain in the regular class they not only hinder the work of the class and tax the teacher's time, but are in great danger of not being able to progress; in fact, there is always a great probability that foreign children will become educational misfits, unless special provision is made for them.

In the Steamer Classes we put our chief emphasis on learning the English language, but we teach the customs, habits and ideals of our country as well. We stress health and cleanliness habits. It is our business to make of these children good American citizens, to inculcate a spirit of loyalty and service, to give them an insight into our form of government and a preparation for participation, to try to instill in them a realization of civic duty and responsibility. The eagerness, appreciation and accomplishment of the pupils is most gratifying to the teachers and serves as an inspiration and challenge to our American-born children. Though the methods and plans of the work are unique, the ultimate aim of the Steamer Classes is the same as that of all other classes,—namely, that each child should leave school with some conception of what America stands for.

Here is an excellent "slogan" which should be taught and used everywhere in the schools of the United States, viz.:

"WILD FLOWERS: ENJOY, BUT DO NOT DESTROY THEM!"

Get the classes and the whole school to repeat these words in unison,—frequently. Talk to the children about the matter. Show them that those who are yet unborn but who will be here in years to come, attending this same school, studying these same subjects, looking upon the same landscapes, listening to the same bird-songs, admiring all the beautiful things that we admire, have a right to the flowers that mean so much to us,—but will not have them if we pull them and pick them with no thought of the future, and so cause them to die out and disappear forever. Teach the children that flowers are *alive,* that they love to be alive, that they love the sunshine and the rain and have wonderful ways of growing and producing new plant babies, and should therefore be tenderly cherished and encouraged, so that God's world and Man's world may be a more beautiful and wholesome place to live in. Pick a few, if you must. But do not pick them wantonly. Never pull them up just for fun. Think of them as living,—and get out of your heart the desire or the willingness to kill any living thing. Co-operate with Nature in making life worth living. These teachings will have their effect on the characters of your pupils and will make life happier for them, and for others yet to be.

The Rockefeller Foundation was chartered by special act of the New York State Legislature on May 14, 1913, ten years ago. The following statement of expenditures during this first decade is made by Edwin R. Embree, the secretary. While the chartered purpose is broadly stated as "the well-being of mankind throughout the world," the work of the Foundation has become chiefly centered upon public health and medical education. The expenditures during the first decade, 1913 through 1922, have amounted to seventy-six and three quarters millions ($76,757,040), roughly divided as follows: Public health, $18,188,838; medical education, $24,716,859; war relief, $22,298,541; all other philanthropic work, $10,445,628; administration, $1,107,174.

One of the things which should be learned during the seven days of "Education Week," is the fact that every one of the fifty-two weeks of every year should be an education week. Sound and wholesome education means more to this country in the long run than all the material prosperity which could possibly come to it. In fact, without education the material prosperity would not be assured. Even life, liberty and happiness would be less hopefully pursued if education were lacking.—*Elmira Gazette.*

Book Reviews

DOCTOR JOHNSON. A Play. By A. Edward Newton. Boston. The Atlantic Monthly Press. Price $3.50.

Most attractively printed, and bearing a delicately-tinted and life-like portrait of Dr. Johnson—after one by Sir Joshua Reynolds—this volume carries one back to the eighteenth century and makes one breathe the very atmosphere of the literary London of that day. Great things were happening then,—though the environment was humble and almost homely as compared with more luxurious times. Somehow, as we live back in imagination in those days, knowing now what was coming out of them, we clothe those human personalities with almost superhuman traits. The humbleness of their environment and their actual poverty oftentimes, serves as a foil to the real greatness of what they accomplished. Immortals like Johnson and his kind demonstrate for all ages the supremacy of mind over matter. They were great in their intellectual supremacy, even when starving. They builded better than they knew. The pictures given by this admirable book will hearten any reader who has a particle of literary taste and imagination. It is a story that will make the Anglo-Saxon American proud of his lineage.

HISTORY OF OUR COUNTRY. By Reuben Post Halleck, M.A., LL.D. The American Book Company.

This admirable presentation of the main facts of American history is written by a master of English, a school executive with long experience, and a scholar who has been noted for his insight into educational problems. His book aims to present the facts of American History "in a simple, direct and living way, just as if they had happened this morning. The life, progress, and industries of the people are especially emphasied." One charm of the volume consists in the simplicity and directness with which the author presents the social aims and ideals of our own twentieth century. The book provides what the author calls "Activities" to develop imagination, sympathies, and appreciation of the problems of other ages than our own. The pupil is made to imagine himself a Quaker, or a Puritan, and then figure out as best he can what he would have done under circumstances in which Quakers and Puritans found themselves. This cultivation of the historic imagination is an excellent feature and makes the study of history more interesting. A large place is given in this book to the place of woman in American history.

APPLIED ENGLISH. Three Volumes, viz., First Book, Second Book, Third Book. By Charles S. Chapin, State Normal School, Montclair, N. J., and Cornelia MacMullan Arnold, formerly Head of Department of English at the same school. American Book Company.

In a progressive and thorough way these attractive volumes develop in the pupil an appreciation of literature and a practical skill in the clear expression of ideas. The English class work is closely correlated with other departments of school work and with home and community life. Thus English is seen in its actual relations to such matters of every-day life as observations of natural phenomena, games, lending a helping hand in the home or neighborhood, story telling, the flag, holiday festivals, birthday greetings, the story hour, talks, letter-writing. Habit formation, oral expression, home reading, criticism, come in for consideration. In fact every practical phase of English is practically treated in these volumes, and the subject is thus made not a theoretical study remote from the sphere of child and youthful interests, but, rather, the pupil associates the study with his daily experiences and finds it correspondingly interesting and helpful.

CARPENTER'S NEW GEOGRAPHICAL READER. ASIA. Also the same for North America. By Frank G. Carpenter, Litt.D., F. R. G. S. The American Book Company.

The series to which these volumes belong has been for many years before the educational public, and has made an enviable place for itself. The series is now being brought up fully to date and the volumes wear the same attractive "clothes" as to binding, illustrative material, maps, etc., as previously. The study of Geography is made alluring and delightful. The very latest facts in regard to the development of the countries, their products, customs, government, ambitions, commerce, literature, arts, industries, and their inter-relations with other nations, are given. One can hardly be said to be educated, in the modern sense, without the aid of the materials combined so alluringly in these books. Their already wide use will be still further enlarged by the new editions with their fresh material, in the gathering of which Mr. Carpenter has traveled at least one hundred and fifty thousand miles, taking photographs and notes in every continent and almost every country on the globe.

THROUGH STORYLAND TO HEALTHLAND. A Health Reader for Primary Grades. By Esther Zucker, Lillian Rabell and Gertrude Katz. Introduction by James J. McCabe, District Superintendent of New York Public Schools. Illustrations by Fanny Louise Warren. Noble and Noble. Price 90 cents.

This is one of the most tactful approaches to the important matter of teaching basic principles of health to young children, that has been placed before the educational world. Everything is perfectly natural. The children make an interesting excursion into Healthland, and their experiences and adventures therein teach them, quite unconsciously at the moment, the laws and importance and desirability of cleanliness, fresh air, good food, proper eating habits, exercise, sleep, etc. There is a health play for dramatization, and a health song, set to a popular tune that is easy to sing. We predict a very wide use of this little book throughout the country in city and rural schools.

SECOND YEAR LATIN. By Perley Oakland Place, Litt.D., Professor of Latin in Syracuse University. The American Book Company.

The author has not taken it for granted that the student when he begins to read Caesar, after a preliminary year of study of the declensions, etc., will be eager to translate the text of the Gallic War story and able to do it without aid. The author of Second Year Latin has a practical scheme for "bridging the gap"; this is too elaborate to describe in a brief review; but any teacher of experience with Latin classes will appreciate it as described in the Preface; and the students will gratefully accept the practical aid offered and will greatly profit by it. The reviewer speaks from experience, both as a student and a teacher of Latin. There are numerous other features that make this book well worthy of careful consideration by those who are facing the task of second year Latin, whether as teachers or students.

A MANUAL OF CORRECTIVE GYMNASTICS. By Louisa C. Lippitt. The Macmillan Company. Illustrated.

Physical Instructors meet with many individual peculiarities in the classes under their care and instruction. These must be dealt with scientifically and thoroughly. They are often neglected, for reasons of delicacy or otherwise. This book presents the right viewpoint and the proper scientific methods. It will fill a felt need and do much good.

JUNIOR ENGLISH COURSE. By P. H. Diffendall, A.M., Principal of the Blair School, St. Louis, Missouri. Little, Brown and Company.

This is especially intended for Junior High Schools and it attempts, successfully, we think, to bridge the gap between elementary and high schools in general. Most of the material has been actually tried out in the classroom and has not been found wanting. A large place has been given to the project-method. The pupil is encouraged to apply Dr. Kilpatrick's four elements of the project, viz., purposing, planning, executing and judging. This feature always interests the student. Emphasis is placed on good usage. This book is practical, interesting, up-to-date.

NATHAN BURKE. By Mary S. Watts. Edition for School Use. By Clarence Stratton, Ph. D., Director of English in High Schools, Cleveland, Ohio. The Macmillan Company.

Probably the best way to catch the spirit of any country is to read a real good historical novel the scene of which is laid in that country at the time when it was emerging from obscurity and becoming individualized and civilized. The story of the Pilgrims gives us the genius of New England life and institutions. Read the life of Daniel Boone and you will feel that you know Kentucky. So, if you would know Ohio intimately and would appreciate the difference between her and any other State, you should read this book, "Nathan Burke." Disabuse your mind of preconceptions about Edmund Burke, and Burke's Speech. Get the right start,—and you will enjoy this story and find it well worth while.

GLEE AND CHORUS BOOK FOR MALE VOICES. By Earl Towner and Ernest Hesser. Silver, Burdett and Company.

A variety of material is presented, suitable to the needs of Glee Clubs in High Schools and Colleges. Many of the selections are arranged for three parts,—tenor, baritone and bass. There are Unison, Two-part and Four-part choruses. This book should find a wide field of usefulness.

JUNIOR TYPEWRITING. By Elizabeth S. Adams, A. M. The Gregg Publishing Company. Price $1.00.

An elementary text in Typewriting that will be of real service to teachers and classes in the schools and to a large body of young people (and some older ones) who are trying, more or less bunglingly, to acquire ability to use the typewriter. Better to do it in the right way and under expert guidance,—when it can be done by the investment of the small sum charged for the helpful volume above mentioned.

THE READING PROCESS. By Wiliam A. Smith. The Macmillan Company.

The aim of the author is to furnish real information, theoretical, philological, historical and practical, which will enable the teacher to develop for himself a correct and virile method of teaching this fundamental subject. It is a book which brings into view the modern knowledge relating to intelligent mastery of reading. It studies the contents of modern Readers and criticizes them. It presents the standard tests for measuring reading ability. It calls reading "an elaborate form of language behavior." Whosoever is trying to teach this subject without a thorough comprehension of its principles should consider it an obvious duty to send for this book or some other as good—if such can be found—which we doubt.

SHEET-METAL PATTERN DRAFTING AND SHOP PROBLEMS. By James Daugherty. The Manual Arts Press. Price $2.50.

A practical text-book, with drawings and photographic reproductions that make clear all details. It will meet the requirements of teachers and of foremen and metal workers in plotting patterns for sheet-metal work, heating, ventilating, etc.

ELEMENTARY ENGLISH, SPOKEN AND WRITTEN. By Lamont F. Hodge, Superintendent of Schools, Yonkers, N. Y., and Arthur Lee, Superintendent of Schools, Clinton, Mo. Charles E. Merrill Company. Three vols.: 1, Elementary; 2, Intermediate; 3, Advanced. These three volumes cover the entire field of instruction in elementary English. Recognizing the fact that we speak more than we write the English language, the authors have provided for abundant practice in the oral expression of thought. We fully believe in teaching our school pupils how to outline their thinking and their speaking. Careful training in outlining is given in these volumes. It will be of inestimable value in all their studies, and throughout their lives. This feature alone constitutes a compelling argument for the adoption of this series. Corrective English, stressed in frequent exercises, abundant use of exercises bringing out simple forms and principles of both spoken and written English, studies of notable historic speeches, social and business letter-writing, the forms of poetry, projects for the class to work out, story-telling, giving a class talk, learning a poem and how to repeat it, getting the "hang" of do, did, does, done, doesn't and don't, forming standards of criticism of one's own language and of its importance and value in different relations in life,—these are but a few of the things that are admirable in this series. We can recommend these books unqualifiedly to those who desire to strengthen and improve their English courses.

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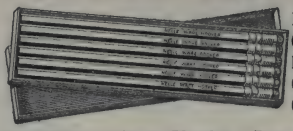

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